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Antecedents and Consequences of Online Brand and Anti-brand Community Participation

By

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the
Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Warwick Business School
University of Warwick

February 2016

Dedication

Father, the Son, and the Holy Spirit

"I am the Alpha and the Omega," says the Lord God, "
who is, and who was, and who is to come, the Almighty."

Revelation 1: 8

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Declaration

I hereby, declare that:

This thesis is presented in accordance with the regulations for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

This thesis has not been previously submitted nor accepted for any degree at the University of Warwick or any other university.

To the best of my knowledge, the work presented in the thesis is entirely my own and with relevant and appropriate acknowledgement where external sources and references have been used.

Before the submission of the thesis, a paper was presented submitted to the Ministry of Defense, the UK Government for the funded project 'Antecedents and Consequences of (Anti-) Online Community'.

Upon acceptance of this thesis, I give my consent for its availability within the inter-university library loans; and that, its title and abstracts are made available to other organizations upon formal request.

Signature :

Date :

Acknowledgement

Romans 5:3-4. Not only so, but we[a] also glory in our sufferings, because we know that suffering produces perseverance; perseverance, character; and character, hope.

Upon the completion of this thesis, I would like to thank God for taking me to the UK in a special way to study PhD full-time first, and then back to my ex-employer here full-time, continuing my study part-time with support from those who have contributed to the thesis in one way or another.

Firstly, I would like to express my heartfelt appreciation to my PhD supervisor Prof. Hongwei He for his wonderful guidance and inspiration through his passion in academic research during online and offline meetings. I am also indebted for his support to my finances through the successful application of research funding for my tuition fees and emotional support during my depressed moments.

Very sincere gratitude is given to my second supervisor, Prof. Lloyd C. Harris. His unreserved support for the administration of my PhD part-time study has helped me immensely in focusing on my academic pursuits.

I would also like to take this opportunity to thank Dr. David Arnott from Warwick Business School and Prof. Alan Wilson from Strathclyde Business School – my viva examiners for their time, comments and suggestions in the final completion of the thesis. Dr. Shoaib Ulhaq and Dr. Gerard Sharpling have also given me useful advice in the fine-tuning of my thesis.

Special thanks are given to Prof. Samart Powpaka, (The Chinese University of Hong Kong), Prof Joe Nan Zhou, (City University of Hong Kong) and Prof. David Tse (University of Hong Kong) for their inspiration in search of academic excellence since my MPhil (Marketing) studies in The Chinese University of Hong Kong.

I am also indebted to my colleagues and Interns in Bosch especially my ex-boss Frieder Spieth for the unanimous support and flexibility to my part-time study. Vielen Dank für Ihre großartige Unterstützung!

I would also like to extend my heartfelt thanks to my church friends in Hong Kong and Singapore for the ceaseless prayers for my life in the UK. Without that, I would not have found my way out. Life is too short to be frustrated with. Certainly, every text message, email and call from all my great friends has been motivating me to learn and explore my life in the UK.

I would like to dedicate this piece of work to my parents, family and relatives for their unassuming love and support in my life for whatever I choose to pursue, although they have no clue about what I am thinking in my mind most of the time! I would also take pride in my nephews and nieces Matthew, Angelina, Jason and Jasmine for their wonderful sharing to brighten up my day. I hope that this piece of work will remind them to seek truth in life with passion and love.

Soli Deo gloria

Abstract

This study aims to propose and empirically test an integrated model of antecedents and consequences of online brand and anti-brand community participation. A common conceptual framework of online brand and anti-brand community participation is proposed. Multiple identifications (i.e., moral identification, brand identification and brand disidentification), brand emotion and motives are proposed as the antecedents of community participation. Community citizenship behavior is used to measure the consequences of community participation.

A total of 260 responses from online brand communities and 200 responses from online anti-brand communities were collected via online survey. The sample was recruited by posting the research links across 409 online brand communities and 690 online anti-brand communities of 142 global brands. This was based on a consolidated list of top 100 global brands from BusinessWeek's 100 Best Global Brands and Millward Brown's BrandZ Top 100 Most Valuable Global Brands.

The result models of online brand and online anti-brand community participation from structural equation modelling analysis indicate the asymmetric impacts of antecedents on motives and community citizenship behavior. Academically, the findings have extended the theory of social identity, emotion, organizational citizenship behavior, together with the newly developed motives of online community participation to explain the results and the differences between these two models from a multiple stakeholders' perspective.

The results of the qualitative and quantitative research have revealed the existence of multiple stakeholders such as brand supporters, brand opponents, activists, and peer groups existing in the communities. Further research is suggested to seek to understand their behavior, dynamics and interaction among each other in a qualitative and longitudinal manner.

Recommendations of online community setup, design and activities are proposed in this study to trigger different stakeholders' participation in the online brand and anti-brand communities for motivating their voluntary community citizenship behavior to the sustainability of the communities. Proactive measures in online anti-brand community are proposed to deal with users' dissatisfactions and identify product and service improvement to fulfil unmet needs.

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Background of the Study

Advances in information and communication technology, together with the exponential increase of the Internet adoption rate, have evoked a proliferation of online communication and virtual community development (Yen et al., 2011). As Cavanagh (2009) said: “where pre-industrial society relied upon face-to-face interactions and interpersonal communications, and industrial society depended upon the one-to-many communicative forms epitomized by broadcast media, so the network society depends on the distributed form of sociality characterized by the Internet and related technologies” (p.5).

The remarkable growth of the Internet in recent years, coupled with its new applications, has enabled consumers to interact with other consumers, manufacturers or service providers anywhere and at any time via various platforms (e.g. blogs, discussion boards, chat rooms, social network sites). As a result of the change in the information economy after the emergence of the Internet and its applications, instead of taking a passive role in the transactional system, consumers have become active content seekers and creators of products and services. For example, the user-initiated online brand communities created by Coca Cola and Nutella have attracted millions of participants and consumer-brand interactions. These cases have demonstrated the consumers’ creation and control of content in online brand communities, independent of any relations to brand owners (Anker et al., 2015). Brand owners are thus able to enjoy the benefits of Internet users’ participation in online brand communities.

First, they may collect the first hand response, experience and information from the consumers regarding every aspect of the brand, its products and services. Such information becomes useful input for building a stronger brand (McWilliam, 2012).

Second, online brand communities enable the brand owners to conduct real time research to collect consumers' quantitative opinion about many topics, such as promotion and advertising message and future product offerings (Shang et al., 2006).

Third, online brand communities help brand owners fine-tune their relationship marketing. By understanding the consumers' participation behavior in online brand communities, the brand owners may obtain "rich emotional and textual qualities that make consumption a meaningful cultural experience" (p.261) (Kozinets, 1999).

Fourth, with both the quantitative and qualitative information obtained from the consumers' online brand community participation behavior, brand owners are able to devise further customer-oriented marketing program to make the brand and consumption experience special to them (Schouten et al., 2007).

Finally, by making use of the online brand community platform, brand owners are able to integrate the input of the consumers' active participation into new product development (Füller et al., 2008).

Many companies start to use online brand communities to interact and communicate with customers because they can reach out to consumers for direct communications and organization loyalty building at a low cost. Consumers may visit an online brand community for various reasons. However once encountered, what attracts them to return?

In terms of online brand community participation, it is crucial for brand owners and owners of user-initiated brand communities to identify the factors that motivate individuals to take part in online brand communities (Casaló et al., 2008, Madupu and Cooley, 2010).

Moreover, as the co-producers of content, services and excitement in online communities to sustain the level of traffic, it is important to study the participants' voluntary behavior of contributing their time and effort directed toward supporting, preserving and improving the online community (Hagel, 1999, Yen et al., 2011).

However, given the potential differences between online and offline communities such as strength of ties, social support, sense of community and succession of role in the invisible nature of artificial online community there has been a call to revisit and empirically test the existing theories developed for the offline setting in the online setting (Ellison et al., 2007, Haythornthwaite, 2007). Certainly, it is worth studying the online specific behavior to gain a better understanding and explanation of online activities and dynamics.

By analyzing the drivers and voluntary outcome of online brand and anti-brand community participation, this dissertation is dedicated to an empirical study of factors that motivate consumers' participation in online brand communities and the subsequent behavior arising from their participation, in the hope of testing the generalizability of existing theories in the virtual environment and developing new knowledge to make sense of online consumer behavior (Koh et al., 2007).

Aside from typical online brand community, there exists a less-focused and alternative type of community, known as anti-brand communities (hate-brand sites). Year-on-year, such communities are becoming more popular (e.g. from 550 in 1997 to 10,500 in 2004) and may serve to create both a positive and negative impact on organizations (Krishnamurthy and Kucuk, 2009).

Organizations face a new form of boycotting and protest through online anti-brand communities as an outlet to social injustice and irresponsibility (Kucuk, 2008b). As such, it is vital to understand the factors that motivate the consumers to take part in online anti-brand communities and understand the outcomes of their participation.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The Internet plays an increasingly important role in the everyday life of human beings, and therefore understanding consumers' online behavior is important to brand owners. The key foci of the research are:

What motivate people to participate in the online brand communities and online anti-brand communities?

What outcomes would the participation bring?

What are the differences between consumers' participation in these two types of community?

1.3 Research Goals and Rationales

No doubt the success and sustainability of a website is subject to a level of traffic and commitment of the participation. However, an understanding of online brand and anti-brand community participation is still in its infancy. Research to-date is mainly piecemeal, and investigate individual antecedents and consequences of online brand community participation (Chan et al., 2014).

By extending previous work, this research aims to 1) propose and empirically test a conceptual model to examine the antecedents and consequences of online brand community and online anti-brand community participation, and 2) compare the differences between online brand and anti-brand community participation.

The foci of the present study specifically address the following research questions and directions:

What are online brand community and online anti-brand community?

The invention of Internet technology and its evolution to public use has become an inseparable part of many people's lives. It is of interest to collect a holistic overview of the actual theoretical development of both online brand and anti-brand communities in order to lay a solid foundation to make sense of online brand and anti-brand community behavior, antecedents and consequences of the participation.

What is online brand and anti-brand behavior?

Online brand behavior, especially anti-brand behavior, is an emerging concept for both the academic and the practitioner. This research seeks to understand online brand and anti-brand behavior, related theories and the missing links.

What affects people's online and anti-brand community participation? What are the consequences of participation?

This research proposes an integrated model to empirically test the differences between the consumers' different behaviors in online brand and anti-brand community. It is a first attempt to compare online brand and anti-brand community participation in academia.

What are the missing links to explain the emergent online community usage behavior?

Online consumer behavior is still new in the marketing field. Together with the development of new concepts of online behavior, this research will also apply existing offline theories to test the generalizability in the online environment.

1.4 Organization of The Thesis

The remainder of this dissertation is presented as follows. Chapter 2 focuses on review of literature on brand community, online (anti-)brand community and a comparison of the setup of online brand and anti-brand community, followed by discussion of need for the study of online brand community and online anti-brand community.

Chapter 3 is a literature review of the relevant concepts and theories of online brand community and anti-brand community participation. It begins with a review of two fundamental models of online community participation by Wang and Fesenmaier (2004) and Dholakia et al. (2004) from the human need and gratification perspective. This is followed by a literature of antecedents of community participation. They are concepts of social identity, brand emotion and motives. Based on the discussion of organizational citizenship behavior concept, community citizenship behavior is proposed as a consequence of online community participation. Concepts of theories related to explanation of anti-brand behavior such as new social movement, protest framing and brand hegemony are introduced as arguments for hypotheses, particularly for the anti-brand behavior in the conceptual model.

Chapter 4 is the methodology chapter, which includes the description of the research design, qualitative and quantitative studies for this research. The results of the qualitative research are presented in Chapter 5. Chapter 6 is a discussion of the conceptual framework and hypotheses proposed for the quantitative research. Chapter 7 is a report of the quantitative research findings.

Chapter 8 is a critical discussion of the findings and theoretical contributions of this research. Chapter 9 concludes the dissertation with managerial implications for this study, together with limitations and recommendations for further research.

Chapter 2: Brand Community, Online Brand Community and Online Anti-brand Community

2.1 Introduction

This chapter will firstly explain the nature and development of brand community. As mentioned briefly in the previous chapter, the evolution of the Internet has encouraged an evolution in brand marketing through means such as online communities both member-initiated and organization-sponsored. Whilst difficult to monitor, throughout growth brand communities have continued to grow and thrive. Within this chapter, this evolution will become clear as we begin to understand the potential affect this has had on marketing to the ever-changing consumer behaviors.

2.2 Brand Community

Brand community has existed since the 1980s, which forms the ability to organize themselves around a particular brand. For example, the Harley Owners Group (HOG), one of the most well known brand communities was set up by the Harley Davidson Group in 1983.

By using Muniz and O'Guinn's (2001) definition, brand community is defined as "social entities that reflect the situated embeddedness of brands in the day-to-day lives of consumers and the ways in which brands connect the consumer to the brand, and consumer to consumer" (p.418).

Such definition has demonstrated the nature of a brand community that is formed to gather together brand followers about the brand – the central consumption object that forms the social interaction among the brand consumers and among the brand and loyal consumers.

They considered brand community as “a specialized, non-geographically bound community, based on a structured set of social relationship among admirers of a brand” (p.412). McAlexander et al.’s (2002) research furthered this by revealing that a sustainable brand community is not decided solely by the brand but the first impression of the brand’s followers towards becoming a community. Secondly, the interaction and communication between the members and the community hosts has to be organized well from the affective, cognitive and behavioral perspective (McAlexander et al., 2003).

Based on the Muniz and O’Guinn’s (2001) definition, McAlexander et al. (2002) argued that it has ignored some other essential relationships. McAlexander et al.’s (2002) research focus was brandfests by Cam Jeep, Jeep, Jeep 101, Jamborees and etc., which were sponsored by the brand owners and organized by marketers and supported by different institutes. Their research demonstrated that apart from the relationship among the consumers and brand owners, the consumers also interacted with institutions, branded possessions and marketing agents. As such, the brand community is built around the consumers instead of the brand and therefore the brand community focuses on the customer’s experiences instead of the brand (Madupu, 2006, McAlexander et al., 2002).

Essentially, both studies drew a common characteristic that brand communities are for the assembly of consumers to communicate and interact with like-minded consumers of a particular brand on subjects such as their consumption experience and opinions about a brand.

Due to its collective nature, a strong brand community could build up a socially established brand commitment and loyalty (Keller, 1997), and ultimately increase brand equity (Aaker, 1991, Muniz and O'Guinn, 2001).

From the strategic point of view, a brand community is a business strategy. Fournier and Lee (2009) consider it as a close-to-customer strategy to understand and respond to customers' needs, to serve them in it. To strengthen the community's identity and cohesiveness, it also defines roles and boundaries for members to follow and cultivate higher sense of belonging to the brand and discrimination to out-groups (e.g., competitors).

Brand communities became a popular topic during the late 20th century (Aaker, 1996). Aaker (1996) sees brand community as the platform for a brand focused social group that is co-created by the natural bonding between the brand sponsors and brand worshipers. As a subset of community, brand community essentially is formed for a particular brand. Harley Davidson became one of the pioneers in brand communities when it established its own in 1983 from below 50 members to over 800,000 members worldwide. Over half of the members attend events organized by the community at least once every year. This has illustrated the commitment of the members in a brand community.

Muniz and O'Guinn's (2001) research findings showed that brand community is characterized by a) consciousness of kind, b) rituals and traditions, and c) a sense of moral responsibility:

- a) **Consciousness of kind:** This is a sense of belonging to the community. Brand community members usually have a strong identity to the brand and opposition against other competing brands. From the collective behavioral point of view, members in the brand community are linked together by the brand due to the common interest in the brand. Therefore, they demonstrate a high level of loyalty to the brand.

- b) **Shared rituals and traditions:** This refers to the shared culture, history within the community. By socializing with members through the celebration of brand history, its symbols (e.g. logo, slogan), brand stories and experiences with the brand and their community members, members become more close-knit. These have been created within the community to sustain the culture and bind the members together with common recognition.

For example, for community members of Saab, when the drivers come across each other, they would turn on and flash the headlamp as a gesture of friendliness.

- c) **Moral responsibility:** This entails the collective sense of obligation to the community and its members. Members in the brand community are committed to the brand and its members by i) integrating new members and retaining the old ones and ii) assisting in the use of brand and sharing of information in relation to the brand (e.g. senior Linux members help new members in using the program). In the brand community, members assume the responsibility and obligation to the wellbeing of the society.

For some communities they may grant different levels of seniority or positions (e.g., administrator, moderator) to the members in order to maintain the healthy development of the society. Members are also committed to key contributions such as feedback on improvement of website design, referral and recruitment of new members. When some members or visitors are not following community standards, the other members will stand up to help and guide them, and also take disciplinary actions (Bishop, 2009).

2.3 Online Brand Community

Broadly speaking, online brand community is brand community in existing in the Internet media. It is a subgroup of online communities of consumption, which are “implicitly and explicitly structured around consumption and marketing interests. They can be defined as “affiliate groups whose online interactions are based upon shared enthusiasm for, and knowledge of, a specific consumption activity or related group of activities” (p.220) (Kozinets, 1999).

Based on Porter’s (2004) study, online brand community for this study is defined as “an aggregation of individuals or business partners who interact around a brand, where the interaction is at least partially supported and/or mediated by technology and guided by some protocols or norms” (p.10) (Porter, 2004). It is used as a “digital environment primarily augmenting their existing social relationship” (p.4) (Bagozzi and Dholakia, 2002, Wellman and Gulia, 1999).

Online brand community first appeared in the late 1990s (Boyd and Ellison, 2007). With the prevalence of email, groupware systems and the Internet application in the 1990s, the brand owners have started to extend its offline brand communities to the online frontier to provide a more flexible platform to reach out and recruit the members without any geographical constraints (Cothrel and Williams, 1999). The proliferation of online brand communities is also largely due to the radical development of the social networking technology especially starting from the Web 2.0 generation. Many of them follow the social networking nature and have numerous capabilities.

Same as any online community, online brand community allows the internet users to “use words as screens to exchange pleasantries and argue, engage in intellectual discourse, conduct commerce, exchange knowledge, share emotional support, make plans, brainstorm, gossip, feud, fall in love, find friends and lose them, play games, flirt, create a little high art, and a lot of idle talk” (p.3) (Rheingold, 2000). Unlike traditional offline community, which membership may be imposed by chance of birth and geographic relocation, the participation of online community is by volitional choice (p.24) (Bagozzi and Dholakia, 2002).

These communities are mainly for the organizations to communicate with the stakeholders’ news and events about their activities such as new developments in products and services. Such communication platforms aim to eventually cultivate stronger mutual communication and loyalty to the stakeholders in a more cost-effective way (Porter 2004). The purpose of joining an online brand community is to share with others the experience with a certain brand to be used as a channel to obtain tangible and intangible resources relating to a brand, its products and services (Burnett 2000).

The online community members meet up with each other in the online community platform to seek physical and emotional support for dealing with issues that they face in life. Whenever the members have any product-related questions, they can visit the communities to look for information and support from the members and the community owners and administrators (Ardichvili et al., 2006).

In Wirtz et al.'s (2010) study about Web 2.0 Internet technology application, they found out that the web 2.0 technology allows organizations to capture a better understanding of customers' needs. With the web 2.0 technology, the Internet users are able to create new content with the brand owner and web site developers. Information and services in the online community are co-created by the organizers and the users.

It makes the e-commerce platform and communication with customers to be more interactive. With the Web 2.0 capability, online brand community has the following characteristics (Wirtz et al., 2010):

- a) **Social networking:** Allows the members to reciprocate and share thoughts with other members. By doing so, social identity and word-of-mouth are created among the members.
- b) **Customization/Personalization.** The interactive features of the Web 2.0 technology have enabled personal, social and group customization. As such the online community members are keen on contributing their own ideas, feedback and recommendations in online community.
- c) **User Value Adding:** It also allows the users co-created content, innovation and new ideas contribution throughout the participation in the online communities with a common goal to sustain the brand and online community.
- d) **Interaction Orientation:** Web 2.0 allows synchronous interaction between the website providers and the participants. They can create the conversation in various formats (e.g., text, image).

2.3.1. Characteristics of Online Brand Community

To follow the evolution of the Internet and its applications for household use, online brand community emerged in the late 20-century. Despite the fact that online brand community has existed for over a decade, due to the ever-changing environment as a result of new technology, it would be difficult to clearly define.

Armstrong and Hagel (2000) suggested that online brand community consisted of four characteristics. They are namely: i) transaction community, ii) interest community, iii) imaginary community and iv) relationship community.

In Kozinets' ethnographic research on online brand communities, results displayed that the Internet users exchange information using different media such as blog, social network media and individual personal websites. Some enthusiastic and passionate brand followers create their own online brand community so that they could keep, post and exchange the unofficial and even negative information with other members in the online brand community without control of the brand owners (Amine and Sitz, 2004).

Amine and Sitz (2004) also observed that members also developed their friendship and contact from online to the offline mode. In order to keep the online brand community sustainable, the online brand community organization has to monitor and encourage the following elements in the community:

- i. Interactive environment
- ii. Mutual communication
- iii. Interest to the brand
- iv. Social norm and symbolization
- v. Willingness to share
- vi. Sense of belonging

In short, by sharing their opinions, experience and feelings about the brands or brand owners in the online platform, online brand community members express both their positive and negative thoughts to the members and brand owners. This helps companies to establish a relationship with committed consumers using low investment from the brand (Ridings and Gefen, 2004).

Dholakia and Vianello (2009) summarize that online brand communities can be used for the following constructive areas:

- a) To conduct marketing research with a short lead-time
- b) To generate and test ideas for product innovations
- c) As an efficient customer service media for fixing problem
- d) To educate and socialize with new customers
- e) To strengthen ties with existing customers
- f) To improve product/service word-of-mouth

Like other conventional media, the sustainability and profit generation of an online brand community is subject to repeated traffic/visit and level of participation of its members. Online brand communities consist of a) company-sponsored online communities and b) member-initiated online communities (Figure 1 and 2) (Jang et al., 2008).

a) Company-sponsored online brand communities

Company-sponsored online brand communities are organized by the brand owner and maintained by salaried people. As such the design and structure of company-initiated brand communities are more user-friendly, updated and professional. From the content perspective, since the company-sponsored communities are set up by the brand owners, the information provided in the community is more updated and comprehensive as compared to the member-initiated brand community (Fournier and Lee, 2009, Stokburger-Sauer, 2010).

The brand owners operate such communities. They are professionally designed and maintained by the companies with comprehensive and updated information about the brands, products and companies. However, the content is managed by the brand owner and consequently negative information about the organization is censored (Figure 1) (Jang et al., 2008).

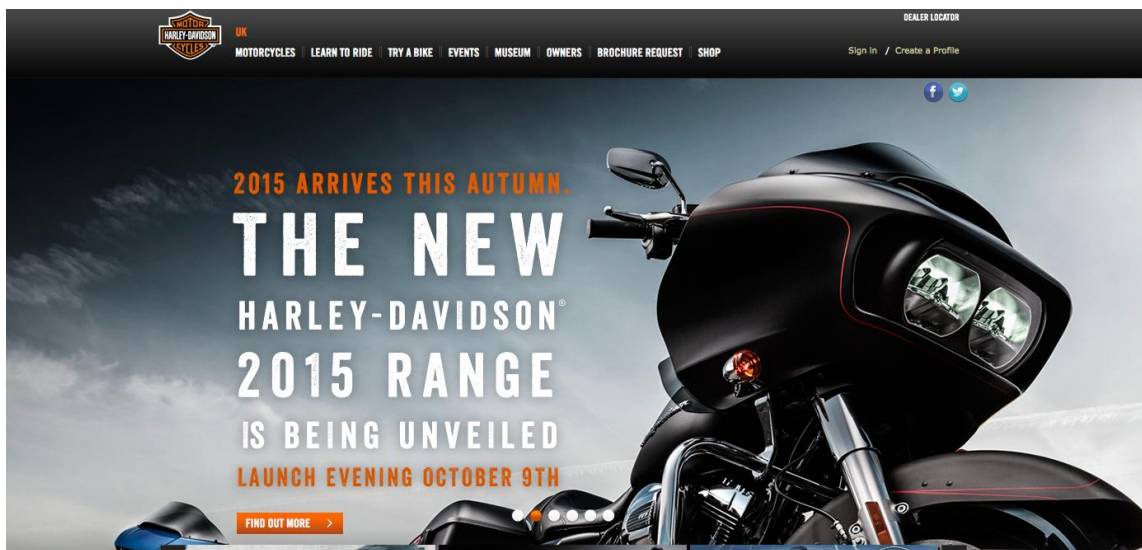


Figure 1: Online Brand Community for Harley Davidson

Source: www.harley-davidson.com

b) Member-initiated online brand communities

The member-initiated brand community is initiated and maintained voluntarily by the brand enthusiasts (Jang et al., 2008). It is created by the individual with a standalone domain, which is not affiliated to the organization that the brand is related to. It is set up by consumers serving as an open platform to the public for both positive and negative feedback and comments about the brand and organization. Take the pioneer online community Harley Davison, for example; the fans of Harley Davison created <http://www.harleylot.com/> and Harley Davison Facebook group (Figure 2).

The key purpose of this group is mainly to socialize with other Harley Davison motorbike fans and to share with each other their experience with Harley Davison products and its related online and offline news and activities.

Social and professional online brand communities are the commercial sub-group of member-initiated online communities, focusing on discussion of topics related to the brand the members are interested in (Figure 2 and 3).

Social member-initiated online brand communities include social network sites, which people join to socialize with other members. In social network sites, members can create their own profiles to build up connection with friends and strangers. In the social network site, one can also find communities for a common area of interest about a brand (Figure 2).

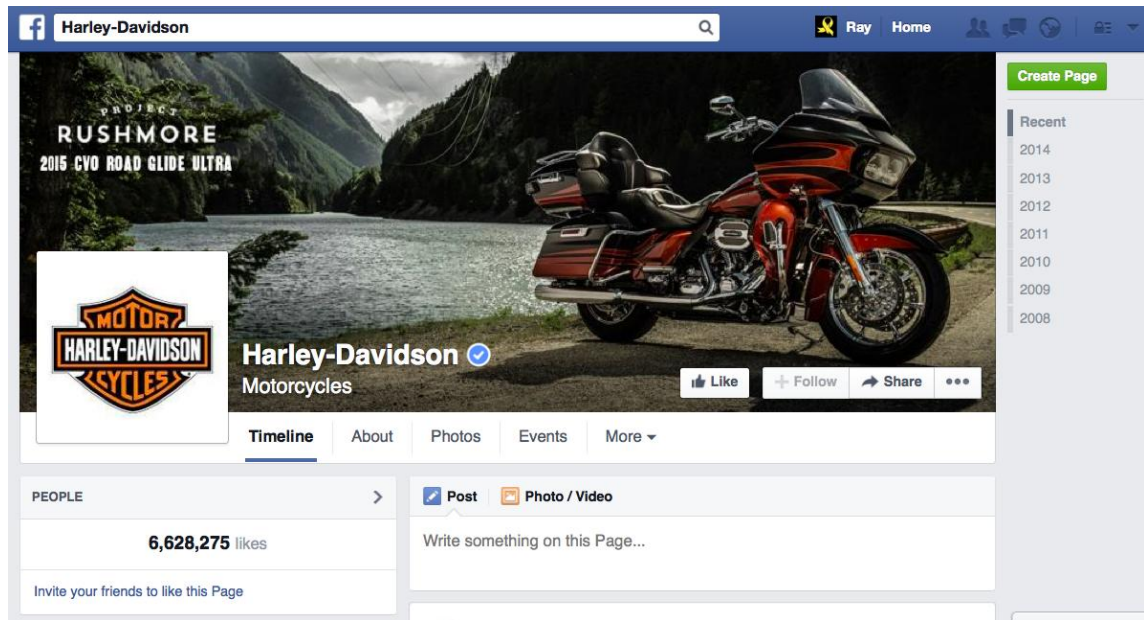


Figure 2: Social Member-initiated Online Community for Harley Davidson

Source: <https://www.facebook.com/harley-davidson>

Professional member-initiated online communities are usually task-oriented and established by work groups such as computer-supported cooperative work for helping other members and developing certain skills (Porter, 2004). For example, the Linux user group was created for experienced Linux users to help and share with new users in open source Linux software (Figure 3).

Usually, online brand communities for professional groups and solutions are standalone website with individual website and domain name. Professionals seldom use social network sites as a technical tool for professional purposes. Instead, such community for professional is used for building up connection with other professionals and people related to their work (Ploderer et al., 2010).

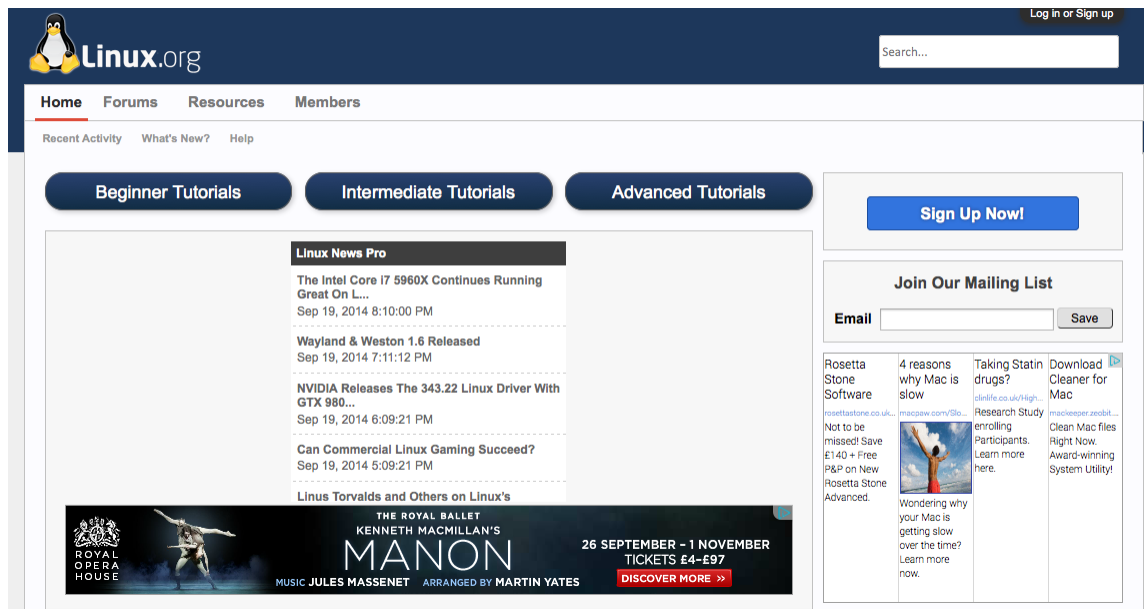


Figure 3: Example of Member-initiated Linux Online Community

Source: <http://www.linux.org/>

To a certain extent, the focus of professional oriented online communities is on knowledge sharing, transfer and generation. The online community provides a 24/7 hotline and open platform. With such a setup, it may be possible to help an organization to improve customer satisfaction with a contact point whenever and wherever they face a problem and are in need of support for general problems (Ducheneaut, 2005).

The co-creation of information and insights by the members of the online community can also be used by the organization or brand owner in order to further improve a product and or service. Negative information could also be used for new product and service development to solve the unsolved problems and complaints (Haythornthwaite, 2007).

Differences Between Company-Sponsored and Member-initiated Online Brand Community

Company-sponsored and member-initiated online brand communities are created by two distinct groups of people for different purposes. Dholakia and Vianello (2009) illustrate their differences in terms of customer selection, purpose and scope of activities, expressive freedom, customer motivations and community markers (Table 1).

Table 1: Company-sponsored vs. Member-initiated Online Brand Community

Category of Difference	Company-sponsored Brand Community	Online Member-initiated Online Brand Community
Customer Selection	Focus mainly on company's target segments. Results in participation by relatively homogeneous customers.	Broadly welcoming to all interested customers. Results in participation by a more diverse consumer base.
Purpose and Scope of Activities	Narrowly defined. Company encourages discussions centered on its products and brands.	Broadly and ambiguously defined. Brand- and product-related conversations intermingle with interpersonal interactions and off-topic conversations.
Expressive Freedom	Constrained in many brand communities, negative comments about the brand or positive comments about competitors are either not allowed or are discouraged.	There are no restrictions. Participants are free to criticize the brand and its products, and to praise competitors.
Customer Motivations	Customers participate mostly for specific, instrumental purposes. The most common reason to participate is when the customer has a problem with the product and wants to fix it or find out what is wrong.	Customers participate mainly for intrinsic and emotional reasons. The most common reason to participate is to meet fellow brand enthusiasts and socialize with them.
Community Markers	These brand communities are often not able to generate all the characteristics that sociologists deem necessary for a collective to be considered a community due to the control by the company.	These communities are marked by the three key sociological markers of community: (1) a consciousness-of-kind, (2) a sense of obligation, and (3) well-developed rituals and traditions.

Source: Dholakia and Vianello, 2009

2.3.2 The Development of Online Brand Community

Research over the past two decades has illustrated that Web 2.0 technology has contributed significantly to the development of online brand communities because it fulfills people's need for sharing and enabling the spontaneous interaction between community members and website organizers regarding a brand and the brand owner (Algesheimer et al., 2005b, Cova and Pace, 2006, Fuchs, 2009b, Jarrett, 2008, Wirtz et al., 2010, Wood, 2010, Algesheimer et al., 2005b).

Prior to this development, brand followers needed to participate in physical activities organized by the brand owners in order to exchange experiences and ideas about the brands (Dholakia et al., 2004). This created a practical hindrance for the fans of brands to join activities, in particular those affecting people located in vast-spreading countries or highly active brand followers. Therefore in the past, online brand activity was less popular than other brand activities such as advertisement and public relations (Hagel and Armstrong, 1997, Kollock, 1999).

The Internet and Web 2.0 technology has provided a 24/7 cyber platform for the brand passionate to network with each other and share one another's experiences and ideas about a certain brand without time, space and location limitation (Boyd and Ellison, 2007, Hampton and Wellman, 2001, Kwak et al., 2010).

Three stages of evolution in the online brand community have been identified (Fremuth et al., 2003).

Stage 1: Online brand community as a product: The focus is on the setting up of an online brand community with the latest technological development and facilities, such as bulletin-board systems, blogs and instant messages.

Stage 2: Online brand community as a channel of communication: Online brand community is established with an online platform for multiple communications with offline activities support.

Stage 3: Online community as a life and real community: Members of the online brand communities establish long-term relationship among themselves and the brand/brand owners.

A decade ago, a prediction was made with regard to the rise of the cult brand based on the postmodern communal approach to consumption in BusinessWeek's Ranking of World's Most Valuable Brands (August 9, 2004):

Analyzing the shifts in this year's ranking, though, it's clear something else is in the air: Consumers are changing how they view and even relate to brands. They remain purchasers of products, true, but through the power of the Internet and as a result of cultural and demographic shifts, many consumers now actively form large communities around their favorite brands. Creating this new sense of belonging is what the most successful marketers are striving for (p.258) (Cova and White, 2010).

Nowadays, marketers have to 'market with' consumer in terms of co-creating value in the online platform with the collective effort of consumers, staff members and the brand owner. A higher linking value attached to the brand, its products and services is created with more active participation of the consumers (Cova and White, 2010).

Online brand communities have migrated from “alternative” media to mainstream social marketing media. Research by Bagozzi et al. (2007) indicates that the increase in online social interactions reduces the users’ usage of traditional media such as telephone conversations, watching TV, neighborhood activities, reading magazines and newspaper, and listening to the radio. However, they do not have significant impact on activities with strong ties of network such as face-to-face interactions with friends and engagement with hobby groups.

Literally, online brand communities bridge the communication gap between brand owners and customers. From the long-term sustainability perspective, they generate positive income to brand equity due to the increase of brand loyalty and support from members with their increased commitment and satisfaction to the brand through online brand community participation (Hoeffler and Keller, 2002).

2.3.3 Interaction Mode in the Online Brand Community

Kozinets’ (1999) qualitative research has highlighted four interaction models of the online brand community. These are 1) Recreational Mode, 2) Information Mode, 3) Relational Mode and 4) Transformational Mode. Details are as follows:

1) Recreational Mode

The Internet users participate in online brand communities for the benefit of entertainment, with different applications provided such as chat rooms, and forums.

2) Information Mode

Online brand communities provide an information model for members to search information related between the members, the brand owners, brands and their products and services such as purchase records and, product manual download.

3) Relational Mode

This refers to the long-term relationship-building feature in the online brand communities between the members and brand.

4) Transformational Mode

This refers to any information and activities that members could know to help them transform decision-making for real purchase such as cross selling and up selling of products.

2.4 Online Anti-brand Community

In this study, the online anti-brand community (also called brand-hate sites) refers to a consumer-initiated online community that discourages brand-censorship through creation of negative brand identity that “focuses negative attention on a specific targeted brand” (p.1119) (Krishnamurthy and Kucuk, 2009). With the power of value co-creation, ‘consumer-producers’ have become tribal opponents to create their own communities to oppose to the management of their favorite brands (Cova et al., 2007).

Anti-brand communities emerge (Awasthi et al., 2012):

- i) To serve as a social community consisting of members with a common moral obligation;
- ii) To serve as a support network to attain common goals;
- iii) To serve as a way of dealing with workplace problems; and
- iv) To serve as a resource platform for taking action.

Since Internet technology has been adopted for commercial use, anti-brand behaviors and activities (e.g., complaint, negative word of mouth) have proliferated in the online platform (Johnson et al., 2011). A study has indicated an exponential increase in such sites from 500 in 1997 to 10,500 in 2004 (Krishnamurthy and Kucuk, 2009).

In view of the Internet's contagious nature, organizations need to be pro-active in starting to monitor activism activities in the online anti-brand communities so that they can deal with the potential and emerging issues discussed in the hate brand sites before they catch social attention and damage the brand image.

Online anti-brand communities gather members with common detestation for a brand. Unlike online brand communities, their focus may skew more to addressing social injustice through the joint force on their disapproval of corporation actions through the online media as "global anti-branding movements" to go against the mainstream pattern of consumption and/or bring about change within the marketplace (Holt, 2002, Hollenbeck and Zinkhan, 2010).

So far, understanding of online anti-brand communities remains limited. People set up online anti-brand communities to draw their collective identities by boycotting and protesting against a brand or company on different issues (e.g. cultural, ethical, legal and political) as a result of consumer activism (Hollenbeck, 2005, Hollenbeck and Zinkhan, 2006, Krishnamurthy and Kucuk, 2009, Kucuk, 2008b, Kozinets and Handelman, 2004, Hollenbeck and Zinkhan, 2010) and complaining behavior (Bailey, 2004, Harrison-Walker, 2001) (Figure 4 and Figure 5).


ANTI-BRANDING IMAGES	ANTI-BRANDING DOMAIN NAMES																																		
 <p>(Source: http://elijahlynn.blogspot.com/2007/01/i-got-this-website-www.html)</p>  <p>(Source: http://homepages.paradise.net.nz/wheels/sift/coca-cola.htm)</p>  <p>(Source: http://www.pdsys.org/blog/2007/06/08/VistaOEMDeactivatingItself.aspx)</p>	<table> <tr> <th>Brand Name</th><th>Consumer Organized Anti-Brand Domain Name</th></tr> <tr> <td>Allstate</td><td>Allstateinsurancesucks.com</td></tr> <tr> <td>American Express</td><td>AmexSux.com</td></tr> <tr> <td>AOL</td><td>Aolsucks.org</td></tr> <tr> <td>Chase Manhattan</td><td>Ihatechase.com</td></tr> <tr> <td>Coca-Cola</td><td>Killereoke.org</td></tr> <tr> <td>Continental Airlines</td><td>Dontflycontinentalairlines.com</td></tr> <tr> <td>Home Depot</td><td>Homedepotsucks.com</td></tr> <tr> <td>Microsoft</td><td>Msboycott.com</td></tr> <tr> <td>Northwest Airlines</td><td>Northworstair.org</td></tr> <tr> <td>Radio Shack</td><td>Radioshacksucks.com</td></tr> <tr> <td>Safeway</td><td>Shameway.com</td></tr> <tr> <td>Starbucks</td><td>Starbucked.com</td></tr> <tr> <td>United Airlines</td><td>Untied.com</td></tr> <tr> <td>UPS</td><td>UnitedPackageSmashers.com</td></tr> <tr> <td>Verizon</td><td>Verizonpathetic.com</td></tr> <tr> <td>Wal-Mart</td><td>Walmart-blows.com</td></tr> </table>	Brand Name	Consumer Organized Anti-Brand Domain Name	Allstate	Allstateinsurancesucks.com	American Express	AmexSux.com	AOL	Aolsucks.org	Chase Manhattan	Ihatechase.com	Coca-Cola	Killereoke.org	Continental Airlines	Dontflycontinentalairlines.com	Home Depot	Homedepotsucks.com	Microsoft	Msboycott.com	Northwest Airlines	Northworstair.org	Radio Shack	Radioshacksucks.com	Safeway	Shameway.com	Starbucks	Starbucked.com	United Airlines	Untied.com	UPS	UnitedPackageSmashers.com	Verizon	Verizonpathetic.com	Wal-Mart	Walmart-blows.com
Brand Name	Consumer Organized Anti-Brand Domain Name																																		
Allstate	Allstateinsurancesucks.com																																		
American Express	AmexSux.com																																		
AOL	Aolsucks.org																																		
Chase Manhattan	Ihatechase.com																																		
Coca-Cola	Killereoke.org																																		
Continental Airlines	Dontflycontinentalairlines.com																																		
Home Depot	Homedepotsucks.com																																		
Microsoft	Msboycott.com																																		
Northwest Airlines	Northworstair.org																																		
Radio Shack	Radioshacksucks.com																																		
Safeway	Shameway.com																																		
Starbucks	Starbucked.com																																		
United Airlines	Untied.com																																		
UPS	UnitedPackageSmashers.com																																		
Verizon	Verizonpathetic.com																																		
Wal-Mart	Walmart-blows.com																																		

Figure 4: Illustrations of Online Anti-branding Images & Domain Names

Source: Krishnamurthy and Kucuk, 2009



Figure 5: Visual of Coca Cola in Anti-Coke Brand Community

Source: Kucuk, 2008

An online anti-brand movement is considered as part of the social movement via the Internet media to a) publicize marketplace inequalities (e.g. use of child labor), b) promote to members advantages about restrictive living (e.g. anti-consumption and simplicity), c) construct a new collective identity, and d) challenge the current or ex-employer for the difficulties facing in the workplace without support and guidance from the company, e) provide knowledge and resources for taking action against the brand (Hollenbeck and Zinkhan, 2006).

Some other studies have also indicated that people join anti-brand community for alternative reasons such as the expression of brand dis-identification (Hollenbeck and Zinkhan, 2010, Holt, 2002, Kozinets, 2002a, Thompson and Arsel, 2004)

Kozinets and Handelman (2004) consider anti-brand as a consequence of consumer movements for defying industrial or marketing practices. Being high-minded citizens with rich knowledge about right and wrong, activists differentiate themselves from mainstream consumers in expressing their dissatisfaction (Ward and Ostrom, 2006) and corporation-focused retaliation (Barclay et al., 2005). However, with the prevalence of online anti-brand community participation and one-click voting application, it could be possible for anti-brand activities not only to involve activists, but for them to be commercialized or digitalized as an impulsive or consumer emancipative behavior to react to unreasonable acts by companies, organizations and governments.

Furthermore, Fuch (2009a) argues that online protest and activist activities result in the illusionary impression by which people can make a difference without transformative and institutionalized power. They could, at best, be used as an expression of repressive tolerance.

In other words, people join an online anti-brand community to disidentify themselves from the brand and identify themselves with a new and opposite identity (Bhattacharya and Elsbach, 2002). Restrictive living as a result of emancipation could be another reason for their participation (Cherrier, 2009).

2.4.1 The Marketing Importance of Online Anti-brand Community

Nowadays members in online brand communities have been playing a trendsetting role by articulating and re-articulating their consumption activities (Kozinets 1999). The bottom-up and self-organizing nature of member-initiated online anti-brand communities has made a revolutionary change in communication and power shift from the brand owners to consumers (Jarrett, 2008). The free exchange and building of information within online communities shifts the control of the suppliers to consumers via online communities. It amasses their purchasing power and force rivalry among vendors (Hagel and Armstrong, 1997, Rothaermel and Sugiyama, 2001).

Kozinets et al. (2010) maintain that communal word-of-mouth not only amplifies marketing messages, but modifies it systematically in the process of embedding them. The contagious nature of online word-of-mouth and feedback models will no doubt change the focus of media choice and marketing mix in the future.

Despite its negative impacts on a brand, the online anti-brand community could serve as an image barometer to help companies gauge people's attitude toward their brand. Companies may be able to identify new branding and product innovation ideas to satisfy consumers unfulfilled needs (Cova and White, 2010).

To conclude, the emergence of Web 2.0 technology may have started another wave of consumer movement by equipping protestors with user-friendly and convenient consumer activities.

Mainstream consumers could use them as outlets to express their repressive tolerance about companies. Therefore, there is a need to gain a more in-depth understanding of the reasons for joining an anti-brand community and its impact on a company.

2.5 A Need for the Study of Online Brand Community vs. Anti-brand Community

An online community is not limited by location and time. It exists on the Internet throughout time (Wellman, 1997). Online brand community forms as an alternative to sustaining long-term interests and identities with Internet technological support (Castells, 2003, Cavanagh, 2009, Wellman and Gulia, 1999). A shift from inter-household ties to individualized person-to-person and role-to-role interactions has been observed, due to the increase in computer-supported social networks (Wellman, 2001).

Table 2 is a summary of comparison between an online brand community and anti-brand community based on an analysis and comparison of the past online research about such communities (Awasthi et al., 2012, Bhattacharya and Elsbach, 2002, Cova et al., 2007, Dholakia et al., 2009, Hollenbeck, 2005, Hollenbeck and Zinkhan, 2010, Kozinets, 2002, Krishnamurthy and Dou, 2008, Krishnamurthy and Kucuk, 2009). Although these two types of community are set up to discuss the brand, it appears that people's motives in joining are different from their online behavior.

The emergence of Web 2.0 technology may have started another wave of consumer movement by equipping protestors with user-friendly and convenient consumer activities. Mainstream consumers could use them as outlets to express their repressive tolerance of organizations. As mentioned by the Jeff Bezos, negative word-of-mouth has formed a more disastrous and contagious power in the online media.

Table 2: Comparison of Online Brand Community vs. Anti-brand Community

	Online Brand Community	Online Anti-brand Community
Establishment	Brand owners or members	Members
Purposes	Sharing of brand / product advantages	Discussion of brand / product disadvantages
Membership	Brand lovers / followers	Brand antagonists / activists
Atmosphere	Harmonious, supportive,	Controversial, emotional, impulsive, sarcastic
Motive of participation	To support the brand	To complain about the brand
Member commitment	Relatively long-term for relationship building with members and brand	Relatively short-term for expression of repressive tolerance
Nature of benefits sought	Functional and social benefits	Social benefits
Topics of interest	Mainstream consumer issues	Non-mainstream consumer issues (e.g., boycotting, anti-consumption, simplicity)
Mode of Identification	Created through identification with brand	Creation of identity through dis-identification with brand

A review of the literature in the areas of communities and social networking reveals that most past studies were concluded in a fragmented manner. A typical online community study would focus either on factors affecting online community participation (Lars Bo and Lars, 2006, McAlexander et al., 2002, Muniz and O'Guinn, 2001, Schau et al., 2009) or the effect of online community participation on other organization-related constructs such as brand loyalty, word-of-mouth and commitment (Casaló et al., 2008, Jang et al., 2008). Only a small number of studies empirically tested models that incorporated antecedents and consequences of online community participation (Algesheimer et al., 2005c, Bagozzi and Dholakia, 2006, Bagozzi and Dholakia, 2006b, Woisetschläger et al., 2008, Madupu and Cooley, 2010), let alone the investigation of anti-brand communities.

There has been an unexplored notion of multiple stakeholders behavior and dynamics in the online community. Previous research has revealed that multiple stakeholders have different brand meanings and reactions to brand (Abimbola et al., 2012). Before the Internet age, as a result of time and geographical limitation, people would be selective in participating in a selected group or community. Now, the Internet and Web 2.0 technology have enabled people to join different online communities and contribute their own ideas with ease.

Compared to offline brand and anti-brand communities, online brand and online anti-brand communities probably consist of more diverse multiple stakeholders to exercise their social responsibility, e.g., expression of opinion in social injustice about organization (Carroll and Buchholtz, 2014). Few recent studies have been found to understand the phenomena and dynamics of multiple stakeholders in online communities (Kornum and Mühlbacher, 2013, Saxton and Waters, 2014, Vallaster and von Wallpach, 2013).

Thus far, the research about online anti-brand community has been mainly descriptive and qualitative in nature. In order to understand the opportunities and threats that online brand and anti-brand communities may bring to the organizations, there is a growing importance given to comparing and contrasting why consumers join these two kinds of communities as well as their impact on an organization by means of quantitative methods, so as to achieve depth and breadth of findings.

2.6 Summary

Chapter 2 has provided an overview of brand community and the evolution of the online brand community and online anti-brand community in terms of their nature, classification, development and inter-relationships. This builds up a solid foundation to knowledge about online environment and also prepares the reader to further explore the antecedents and consequences of online brand and anti-brand community participation.

Chapter 3: Literature Review

3.1 Introduction

In the past decade, a large amount of research has sought to understand Internet users' online behaviour, of which, online community has been one of the key foci. Researchers in management are also starting to understand and realize the increasing popularity of online brand community as preliminary studies have been conducted to understand the Internet users reasons for online brand community participation from the human need perspective and to understand the different strategies that the members use in order to succeed in the online brand community (Wang and Fesenmaier, 2004). Some researchers have adopted a gratification approach that looks into the reasons for joining online communities with theoretical support from previous social science studies (Dholakia et al., 2004, Woisetschläger et al., 2008).

In Wang, Yu and Fesenmaier's (2002) proposed needs-based model of online communities participation, the Internet users join an online community to fulfil personal needs such as social needs, psychological needs and function needs. Further research by Wang and Fesenmaier (2004) has elaborated the model with the addition of hedonic needs concluding that an online-society consists of people from different nationalities and races. However, an online brand community cannot simply cater for the functional needs of every member, as proposed in the previous research, as it has to be versatile enough to provide different features to cater for the diverse needs of its members.

In Dholakia et al.'s (2004) model of online community participation, it has been proposed that the Internet users join an online community for the following five reasons: self-discovery, social enhancement, purposive value, entertainment and maintaining interpersonal interconnectivity. Essentially the interpretation of self-discovery is equivalent to psychological needs; social enhancement and maintaining interpersonal connectivity are social needs. Entertainment is seen as a hedonic need.

The categories of factors included in Wang and Fesenmaier (2002) and Dholakia et al.'s (2004) research are used as the rationale for antecedents on choice and development of antecedents of online brand community. The research also has to consider that all the factors employed are relevant, and shed light on the interpretation of an online anti-brand community. There is a combination of antecedents which are newly developed or empirically tested in the online brand community and online anti-brand community in order to explore and generalize a more comprehensive and relevant model to account for the factors affecting the Internet user's participation in online brand and anti-brand community.

As for the consequences of online brand and online anti-brand community, more care has to be taken so that the chosen factors would make sense to these community types.

From the organization behavioral point of view, there has been much research conducted to investigate the different factors affecting employees' voluntary behavior, which is collectively called organizational citizenship behavior and consists of helping others, recommendations and providing feedback (Organ and Ryan, 1995, Organ et al., 2006, Organ and Konovsky, 1989, Organ, 1988, Netemeyer et al., 1997, Boiral, 2009).

These offline behavioral concepts together with online knowledge sharing and moderation behavior are used for this research and named in community citizenship behavior to understand the voluntary behavior of members in online brand and anti-brand communities.

This section will firstly review the framework of online community participation, followed by key concepts and constructs pertinent to the factors affecting people's intentions and consequences while participating in online communities and online anti-brand communities. Finally, theories related to anti-brand participation are discussed.

3.2 Framework of Online Brand Community Participation

For a members' participation, the level of participation is the most critical factor for the survival of online brand communities (Algesheimer et al., 2005b, Casaló et al., 2008, Koh and Kim, 2004).

Three aspects of online community participation include (Casaló et al. 2008, Koh and Kim 2004):

- i) The effort to maintain the dynamics of the online community;
- ii) The level of contribution to help other community members; and
- iii) The involvement and excitement to upload information and responses in the community

Research regarding online brand communities has been widely discussed in a fragmented manner, and therefore comprehensive studies on the factors affecting the Internet users' participation to an online brand community are limited.

Dholakia et al.'s (2004) social influence model of online community and Wang and Fesenmaier's (2004) model of online community participation are now reviewed.

3.2.1 Social Influence Model of Online Community Participation

Dholakia, Bagozzi and Pearo (2004) proposed a social influence model of participation in an online community. The model is based upon the previous research in the field of communications from the gratification perspective (Baumeister and Leary, 1995, Bearden et al., 2001). The theory of gratification has been used in mass communications to explain people's behavior and intention so as to continue using a medium.

The result of Dholakia et al.'s (2004) research has drawn up the following five motives for taking part in an online community: a) entertainment motive, b) maintaining interpersonal interconnectivity motive, c) purposive value motive, d) self discovery identity and e) social enhancement motive (Table 3).

These five motives may be further grouped into self-related motives for one's personal self (entertainment, purposive value and self-discovery) and self relation motives for other selves (maintaining interpersonal interconnectivity and social enhancement).

Table 3: A Summary of Motives of Online Community Participation

A Summary of Motives of Online Community Participation	
Self-related Motives	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Entertainment2. Purposive value3. Self-discovery
Other Motives	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Maintaining interpersonal connectivity2. Social enhancement

Source: Dholakia et al., 2004

3.2.1.1 Self-related Motives

a) Entertainment

Previous research has shown that entertainment is an antecedent of online community participation (Beaudouin and Velkovska, 1999). The element of entertainment comes from the interaction with the members of the online community to attain fun and relationship (Dholakia et al., 2004). The value of entertainment from the previous research derives from the offline community members' needs for aesthetic enjoyment, diversion, emotional release and escapism (Bender, 1982).

b) Purposive Value

Madupu and Cooley (2010) consider purposive value as an integration of instrumental value and informational value. By participating in online communities, a member can exchange and receive information from other members, sometimes to create 'instrumental value' by helping each other to accomplish a certain task such as buying and selling something, creation of ideas and making a certain decision (Madupu and Cooley, 2010).

c) Self-Discovery

Through the social interaction with the members and the responses they receive in the online communities, members try to discover and improve their knowledge in different areas (Dholakia et al. 2004). When discussing self-discovery in the online community, this is a direct reference to the attainment of resources and identification of future goals for a person (Birnbaum, 2001). Furthermore, interaction with the members assists the individuals to form, define and identify their values, preferences and tastes. In Dholakia et al.'s (2004) research, purposive value entails the utilitarian aspect of an individual to the external stimuli whereas self-discovery value focuses on the intrinsic aspect of the online community members.

3.2.1.2 Others-related Motives

a) Maintaining Interpersonal Interconnectivity

Interpersonal interconnectivity concerns 'companionship' (Dholakia and Bagozzi 2004). Maintenance of interpersonal interconnectivity is defined as "the social benefit derived from establishing and maintaining contact with other people, such as social support, friendship, and intimacy" (p.244) (Dholakia et al. 2004). Through interaction with the online community, members can use open and private online and offline media to find like-minded people to gain support and build up friendship.

Due to a common shared topic or interest, the tie and relationship between online members has become close, personal and intimate (Blanchard and Horan, 1998, Walther, 1996).

b) Social Enhancement

Social enhancement may be considered as an interpretation of gaining social capital in the Internet and social networking media (Mathwick et al., 2008, Steinfield et al., 2008). Essentially, social enhancement is an aspiration of individuals to acquire social benefit through the participation in community activities with other people. The benefits are acquired by gaining the approval, recognition and acceptance of the participants.

As such, their social status in the community will be upgraded through social enhancement or the promotion of a perceived status in the community (Blanchard and Markus, 2002).

In Bishop's (2009) open source online project, some members behave like leaders or elders in a cyber tribe by taking care of the laws and orders of the website, and are therefore devoted to answering the questions raised by other members. In doing so, they receive the points for promotion to some roles in the community. In return their social status in the online community is promoted (Bressler and Grantham, 2000).

3.2.2 Framework of Online Community Participation

In 2004, Wang and Fesenmaier (2004) proposed that Internet users take part in online communities to fulfill a certain functional, hedonic, psychological and social needs (Figure 6).

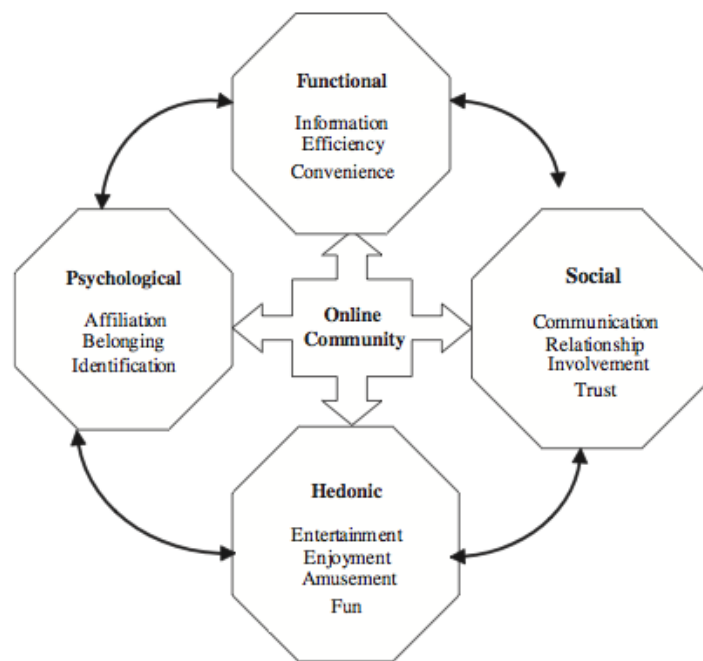


Figure 6: Framework of Online Community Participation

Source: Wang and Fesenmaier 2004

3.2.2.1 Functional Needs

Information. Members participate in an online community for functional benefits such as information, solution or contact for solving certain problems in life (Arnott and Bridgewater, 2002, Wang and Fesenmaier, 2004).

Besides sharing information, members contribute to working out something based on the information shared, such as gathering purchase decision opinions. The online community thus provides a perfect platform for people from anywhere anytime to share and store the information online for searching in the archives 24/7.

Convenience. Unlike offline communities which are limited by time and geographical distance, online communities are open 24/7. Therefore, members can log in and participate in the community activities anytime, anywhere they want to. Interaction with others is spontaneous.

Efficiency. Due to the popularity of Internet and advancement of Internet technology, Internet users now have immediate access to online communities. The setup of a community in the online platform allows the members to keep in touch with like-minded people and find out the related information they need with ease (Ridings and Gefen, 2004).

3.2.2.2 Social Needs

Wang and Fesenmaier (2004) suggested four dimensions of social needs for online community participation. Such needs could be fulfilled and communicated with social meanings through the participation of other members in the socially structured online community (Wang et al., 2002).

Communication. Despite the advancement of society, the evolution of the society sometimes creates communication barriers between people, especially for some implicit cultures.

The online community provides a suitable communication channel for members to express and communicate their thoughts with like-minded people (Acar and Polonsky, 2007).

Relationship. Members build up relationships through discussion, helping each other with information, ideas and emotional support, etc.

Involvement. Online community is a cross-border setup which consists of people from different backgrounds participating to contribute their knowledge, time and effort in supporting each other.

Trust. Online friendship has been considered one of the most important reasons for joining online community. When the friendship grows across time, members start to build up trust with each other (Chan and Cheng, 2004).

3.2.2.3 Hedonic Needs

Other than function, hedonic needs are another drive for people to take part in online communities (Chung and Buhalis, 2008, Wang and Fesenmaier, 2004, Hoffman and Novak, 1996). Hoffman and Novak (1996) proposed that hedonic behavior become one of the two most significant behaviors reflected in online community members' motivation.

In the past decade, studies have demonstrated that consumers participate in the Internet and different platforms there to seek hedonic value (Huang, 2008, Ko et al., 2005, Dholakia et al., 2004, Wang and Fesenmaier, 2004, Pai and Arnott, 2013).

In brand related activities, consumers also demonstrate their impulsive emotion to a certain brand (Thomson et al., 2005).

Entertainment. People sometimes join an online community not purely for utilitarian needs, but to seek entertainment as a mean of recreation from the experiential aspects of consumption (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982, Holbrook, 1994).

Enjoyment and amusement. Bryant (1989) has proposed that enjoyment and amusement are the key components of hedonic values.

Fun. The fun factor of hedonic value encompasses escapism, aesthetic, diversion and emotional release (McQuail, 2010).

3.2.2.4 Psychological Needs

Wang and Fesenmaier (2004) proposed the psychological needs aspect of online community based on Bressler and Grantham's (2000) proposal of online and offline participation to satisfy the psychological needs through 1) a sense of affiliation with other members in the community, 2) a sense of belonging to the community and 3) an identity expression through the community. Previous studies also suggested that a sense of affiliation, sense of belonging (Rheingold, 2000) and needs of identification are reasons to join online community (Ahearne et al., 2005, Dholakia and Bagozzi, 2004, Kozinets, 1999).

3.3 Antecedents of Online Brand and Anti-brand Community Participation

Bagozzi and Dholakia (2006) proposed that the antecedents of online community participation could be considered from cognitive, social and affective perspectives. Based on the above-mentioned models of online community participation by Dholakia et al. (2004) and Wang and Fesenmaier (2004), selected multiple aspects of social identity are chosen to be the social factors of participation. Motives are chosen to be the cognitive factors of online brand and anti-brand community participation. Brand emotion is chosen as the affective factor of participation.

3.3.1 Social Identity

Community serves to gather together a group of people who share a certain identity (Wellman et al., 2002). Therefore, different aspects of identification are chosen in this study to understand their impact on participation in online brand and anti-brand community.

Definition of identity:

“qualities and attitudes you have that make you feel you have your own character and that you are different from other people” (Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English) (Summers, 2003)

“who you are; the identity of a person or place is the characteristics they have that distinguishes them from others (The Collins Cobuild English Dictionary for Advanced Learners (Sinclair, 2001)

Identity loosely addresses the general twin questions of “Who am I?” and “How should I act?” (Cerulo, 1997). Social identity refers to “an individual’s perception of him or herself as a member of a group, particularly in terms of value and emotional attachment” (p.10) (Alvesson and Ashcraft, 2008). Social identification is the “perception of oneness with or belongingness to some human aggregate” (p.135) (Ashforth and Mael, 1989).

In social identity theory, individuals recognize themselves as having a sense of social identity from the common characteristics that they share with each other in the community against other attributes (Shen et al., 2010). When a person’s particular personal identity becomes prominent, it will trigger certain motives, needs, beliefs and standards that determine behavior (Kim et al., 2011, Stets and Burke, 2000).

An individual’s identity affects one’s behavior through the process of identification such as association with certain groups (Kim et al., 2011). Being in the in-group, group members gain positive value from membership in their group (Tajfel and Turner, 1986, Tajfel and Turner, 1979). Social identity theory hypothesizes that people identify or categorize themselves into groups such as interest and organization to match the individual attributes with collective group attributes.

It is found that individuals have multiple social identities such as gender, ethnic background, marital and family status and occupation (Balmer and Greyser, 2002, Tajfel and Turner, 1979, Verbos et al., 2007). Theories of identity-based motivation proposes that the more central a certain identity is to an individual, the more likely such identity is to impact on his or her emotions, thoughts and behavior (Higgins, 1996, McFerran et al., 2010).

Such an identity has significant impact on participation intention and is reinforced through participation (Brown and Duguid, 2001, Zhou, 2011). A strong identity among the members in an organization will reinforce higher cohesiveness from the collective perspective (Turner et al., 1983). Self-verification theory proposes that individuals need others' confirmation of their identities to acquire a sense of understanding and coherence in order to maintain their positive attitudes namely satisfaction (Hertel et al., 2003, Ma and Agarwal, 2007, Swann Jr et al., 2000).

This would create stronger in-group favouritism and lessen competition within the community (Yu et al., 2010). The recent research about online community identity also found out that online group identity could build up emotional attachment and bonding among members in the online community (Ren et al., 2012).

In an online context, using Tajfel and Turner's (1986) definition of social identity, online social identity is defined as "part of the individual's identity which is derived from knowledge of his or her membership in an online social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership" (p.11). In the online community, members identify and prioritize themselves with their multiple roles and responsibilities in the group(s) that they belong to (Pratt and Foreman, 2000). User-generated information enables marketers to "focus on the complex and vitally important cultural relationship between personal identity, social identity, and brand identity" (p.26) (Kozinets 1999).

In Muniz and Guinn's (2001) research about brand community, shared rituals and traditions are one of the three characteristics in brand community, as are the implicit and explicit reflection of identity (Underwood et al., 2001).

Identity serves a catalyst function in mobilizing the cohesiveness of members in a community. When members identify similarities with other members in the community, they may treat each other like family members and take on the voluntary responsibility and commitment to build up the community (Bergami and Bagozzi, 2000).

3.3.1.1 Moral Identification

Moral identity is defined as “a mental representation that a consumer may hold about his or her moral character” (p.178) (Reed II et al., 2007).

Moral identity plays an important role in one’s self-concept, which is a salient drive for pursuit of actions by expressing social responsiveness to others’ needs (Aquino and Reed, 2002). Among the multiple identities the consumers have, moral identity would regulate judgment when it is more important to a person’s self concept (Reed II et al., 2007).

Moral character consists of three dimensions (Shao et al., 2008). They are:

Willpower: the capacity for self-control

Integrity: an individual’s concern for the unity of perceived self

Moral desire: the intensity with which one yearns for first-order moral goals and ideals such as compassions and kindness. It determines one’s level of priority to exercise moral goals (e.g., following company policy) vis-à-vis other goals (e.g. cheating to achieve financial gain).

Aquino and Reed (2002) suggest that moral identification consists of a private and public dimension in which the private dimension of moral identification is called internalization, and the public dimension is called symbolization.

a) Internalization delineates the level of experienced moral self-schema versus one's self-definition: "the degree to which the moral traits are central to the self-concept". It demonstrates more robust moderating effects than symbolization (Reynolds and Ceranic, 2007).

b) Symbolization refers to the level of moral self-schema projected outwardly through one's explicit actions: "the respondent's actions in the world" (Shao et al. 2008).

Previous studies show that moral identification plays an important and positive role in community behavior such as donation, ethical and moral responsibilities to the community (Madupu and Krishnan 2008, McFerran et al. 2010, Shao et al. 2008). Online behavior could be used as a means of self-presentation (Kim et al., 2012). In taking donations as an example, a person may donate privately to respond to the internalization aspect of moral identification whilst someone could donate and participate in public charity activities to fulfil the symbolization aspect of moral identification (Winterich et al., 2013).

Previous research has found evidence for the links between moral identity and pro-social behavior. Given the prescriptive and prohibitive nature, moral identity may motivate people to act pro-socially and to avoid acting anti-socially to others (Hardy and Carlo, 2005, Reed II and Aquino, 2003, Aquino and Reed, 2002, McFerran et al., 2010).

Moral responsibility is one of the three key characteristics of brand community. It is defined as "a felt sense of duty or obligation to the brand community as a whole, and to its individual members" (Muniz and O'Guinn, 2001). Obviously, an individual with high moral identity is willing to take the responsibility to play a regulatory and moral role to help the brand community's new and current members to solve problems they face.

This allows brands to maintain an ethical and cohesive community, and therefore, a moral character is an important element to regulate people's voluntary engagement in online brand communities (Algesheimer et al., 2005b).

In essence, members identify themselves as part of the community to assume the moral responsibility to maintain the prosperity of the brand community in terms of a) retaining and maintaining the sense of belonging and commitment and b) helping the members in the brand community with a proper use of the community (Muniz and O'Guinn, 2001). McAlexander et al.'s (2002) research also demonstrated that such moral responsibility was absent at the beginning of community participation, but acquired and reinforced through participation and interaction with members: "seems to relish the recognition and status that came with superior knowledge and skills" (p.42).

Through participation, members immerse and engage themselves in communities which bring about higher involvement from lurker and novice to regular, leader and elder members with higher commitment to the communities such as building up the newcomers in order to contribute to the success of the brand community (Hagel and Armstrong, 1997, Kim, 2000, Kozinets, 1999, Bishop, 2009). In the member-initiated online brand community, it is very common for the webmaster to appoint experienced and committed members of the community to take up a voluntary role as moderator to welcome newcomers, get used to the culture, rituals and norms of the brand community, guide members to find the information they are looking for and regulate the order of the community (Algesheimer et al., 2005a, Langerak et al., 2003) and recommend the brand (McAlexander et al., 2002).

Given the principled ethical and ideological quality, people with high moral identity tend to demonstrate more non-egotistical form of organizational citizenship behavior, namely helping others, not complaining about issues and being courteous out of altruistic motive (Schlenker, 2008). Such qualities serve as a motivational force to translate an individual's moral cognition into a behavioral desire for self-consistency (Reynolds and Ceranic, 2007).

3.3.1.2 Brand Identification

Brand identification is defined as “a consumer’s psychological state of perceiving, feeling, and valuing his or her belongingness with a brand” (p.307) (Lam et al., 2012). Brand identity is sometimes called customer-brand identification. It involves the degree to which customers identify with the brand of a company to fulfil definition needs and the resultant emotional reactions to the psychological oneness with such a social entity (Ahearne et al., 2005, Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003, Homburg et al., 2009).

Brand identity refers to members’ perceived identity from enduring and distinctive characteristics of the brand such as prestige from brand, satisfaction with brand and product and the brand personality (Kuenzel and Halliday, 2008). It explains when, why and how brands might help consumers to enunciate their identities. Its key drivers include memorable brand experiences, brand-self similarity, brand warmth, brand distinctiveness and brand social benefits (Stokburger-Sauer et al., 2012). Brand identity is established by a) the interactions among internal stakeholders and b) their interactions with target groups from external (Burmman, 2010).

In studies of consumer culture theory, the market has become sources of social cues and symbols that assist consumers to seek for identity projects (Lam et al., 2013, Arnould and Thompson, 2005, Holt, 2002).

Participants join an online brand community to seek for the feeling of 'we-ness' and develop the 'consciousness of kind' with other members in the brand community (Bender, 1982, Szmigin and Reppel, 2004). When newcomers first join a brand community, there is no communal relationship, and social ties with the community and members are weak. New online brand community members, through the discussion and participation of brand related topics and activities, become acquainted with the members and pick up the 'ropes of community practices' (Langerak et al., 2003).

In McAlexander et al.'s (2002) research of Jeep car and Apple brand communities finds out that the newcomers gradually learn the subculture of the brand communities and identify each other in the communities through the brand such as 'Jeep people'.

In addition, in the brand community, brand identity is reinforced through co-creation of shared rituals and traditions, which are considered as "conventions or practices that set up visible public definitions and social solidarity and perpetuate the brand community's shared history, culture, and consciousness" (Muniz and O'Guinn 2001).

Jake, a new Grand Cherokee owner, said that he "almost didn't come" to Camp Jeep because he expected the event to attract a predominance of "barbarians" and Share-core four-wheelers." He spoke of his fear of feeling "like some geeky yuppies on the sidelines." That fear was quelled somewhat upon his arrival as he observed other Grand Cherokees, which he presumed belonged to people similar to himself. Similarly, Amanda, the upscale wife of a retired surgeon, attended the 1996 Camp Jeep reluctantly. On the first day of the three-day event, she explained, "I just don't see myself as a Jeep Person," in a pejorative tone. At the close of the event, we spoke with her again, and she reported having experienced a quantum shifts in attitude.

She lauded Chrysler's efforts in creating an enjoyable event. Her experience gave her added appreciation for her own Jeep and its capabilities. Moreover, having interacted pleasurably with many people, she no longer maintained a me-versus-them attitude about "Jeep people." (p.42, McAlexander et al. 2002).

Through participation in the online brand community, members attempt to identify and form close bonding with the like-minded people who share the same taste and support a particular brand and brand owners (McWilliam, 2012).

In other words, brand community "helps to identify the perceived social image of consumers, and consumers also use an online brand community to gain the identity recognized by their peers" (p.45) (Wang and Wei, 2011).

The setup of social media such as the "Like" function in Facebook allows the users a chance of self-expression to articulate their inner selves and social selves with respect to echo to the brand identity. This self-expressive manner of the "Like" on Facebook has reinforced brand acceptance and forgiveness of brands for wrongdoing (Wallace et al., 2012).

Consistent with explanations from social identity theory, members choose to support a certain brand, which they wish to associate with their personal value. Previous research shows that brand identity has a positive impact on behavior such as brand and product loyalty, word of mouth and brand repurchase (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003, Kuenzel and Halliday, 2008).

Brand identity in this context is member-community identification. It involves the degree to which customers identify with the online brand community of a company to fulfil self-definitional needs and the resultant emotional reactions to this identification (Ahearne et al., 2005, Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003, Homburg et al., 2009).

Blanchard (2008) has hypothesized that the individual anonymity nature of brand community leads to greater immersion in the group and an increased salience of brand community identity. Online community members establish their own recognition of others through participation in the community. Postmes et al. (2005) believe that communities co-exist and reinforce each other through communication with members.

Subsequently, they are more prone to taking part in a relationship when their salient identities are confirmed by other group members (Ma and Agarwal, 2007). Research shows that brand community identification has a positive impact on customer in-role behavior such as customer loyalty, higher product utilization and willingness to pay (Ahearne et al., 2005, Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003, Homburg et al., 2009) and extra-role behavior namely symbol passing, positive word of mouth, and collecting collectibles (Donavan et al., 2006, Lam et al., 2013).

Smith (1992) delineated that online communities keep up with the commitment of the followers to participate and contribute continuously through ritual, norms and other means. For the case of online brand community, such characteristics would enhance the brand followers' identification with the brands and participation to its activities (Smith, 1992).

Brand identification also plays a mediating role to value congruity on brand commitment. A member's identification with the brand and brand community would lead to a higher level of commitment such as higher perceived obligation to help the in-group members through knowledge sharing activities (Tuskej et al., 2013, Wiertz and de Ruyter, 2007). Such a contribution to the community will reinforce a members' stronger level of commitment and identification to the group (Wasko and Faraj, 2005) and generate positive word-of-mouth (Tuskej et al., 2013).

3.3.1.3 Brand Disidentification

Disidentification is “a self-perception based on (1) a cognitive separation between a person’s identity and his or her perception of the identity of an organization and (2) a negative relational categorization of the self and the organization” (p.394) (Elsbach and Bhattacharya, 2001). Alvesson et al. (2008), consider anti-identities as a “vision of the ‘other’, or dis-identification, all of which constitute the self around what it is not”, which could be driven by extra-individual and individual forces. Research shows that organizational disidentification is positively related to individual contesting organizations and criticizing organizations publicly (Elsbach and Bhattacharya, 2001, Kreiner and Ashforth, 2004).

Disidentification is associated with a sense of value incongruence between the person to a group and its simplified images formed from perceived reputation (Bhattacharya and Elsbach, 2002). Research finding has shown that it leads to counter-organizational actions (e.g. boycott) and public criticisms (e.g. negative word-of-mouth).

The concept of ‘distastes’ is a reflection of one’s identity to a brand as an expression of disgust in the form of a natural reaction of human emotion (Englis and Solomon, 1997, Fournier, 1998a). People dis-identify themselves with a brand in order to express their distaste for the brand and not to associate with the brand. Muniz and O’Guinn (2001) depicted this as a consequence of consciousness of a kind to demonstrate one’s loyalty to a brand, by exhibiting oppositional brand loyalty to the competing brand.

According to previous qualitative research, online anti-brand community members may have different reasons and objectives for joining the community. People join anti-brand communities mainly to demonstrate their support to social responsibility and to be associated with the aspired group of like-minded people and lifestyle that the anti-brand communities shape and portray (Hollenbeck, 2005, Hollenbeck and Zinkhan, 2006, Kozinets and Handelman, 2004, Krishnamurthy and Kucuk, 2009, Kucuk, 2008b).

In the previous investigation of identification versus dis-identification and identifiers versus dis-identifiers, Bhattacharya and Elsbach (2002) have found asymmetric behavior. Consumers can exhibit active oppositional brand loyalty by participating in anti-brand activities or passively rejecting the competing brands by eliminating them from the purchase list or shopping 'radar', because brands do not have anything in common that reflects their identity (Hogg, 1998, Madupu, 2006).

3.3.2 Brand Emotion

Brand emotion has been one of the ignored topics in the marketing domain, although related topics such as brand equity, brand awareness, brand trust, brand personality, and brand loyalty are some of the mostly studied topics (Aaker, 1991, Aaker, 1996, Hoyer and Brown, 1990, Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001, Aaker, 1997, Jacoby and Kyner, 1973).

Emotion is a widely discussed and used terminology in daily life. According to Myers (Myers, 2004), human emotion involves "physiological arousal, expressive behaviors, and conscious experience". Based on the literature search, the notion of emotion in psychology studies the impact of emotion to motivation and action (Weiner, 1985, Roseman, 1984, Arnold, 1960). In psychology, emotion is defined as a complex state of feeling as a result of psychological and physical changes that affect thought and behavior (James, 1884).

In the marketing field, apart from the positive emotion, negative emotion is so far the unexplored domain in terms of its impact on people's behavior toward a brand. In social science, human being's basic emotions have been studied across different cultures (Ekman and Oster, 1979, Ekman, 1999, Russell, 1994).

In spite of the impact of emotion found on one's behavior based on the past research in psychology and the importance of brand to the success of a business, studies about brand emotion have been rather limited and loose (O'Shaughnessy and O'Shaughnessy, 2003, Heath et al., 2006, Morrison and Crane, 2007). The concept of brand emotion has been partly studied under the concept of emotion attachment. When one is a hard-core fan of a brand, to a certain degree, one is believed to be emotionally attached to the brand or something revolving around the brand (e.g., spokesman of the brand) (Park et al., 2007, Thomson et al., 2005).

However, in the context of online anti-brand community participation, it is skeptical to believe that the emotion of the community members would be psychologically attached to the brand or anti-brand activities (Bailey, 2004, Hollenbeck and Zinkhan, 2010). It would be academically insightful to compare the members' positive and negative dimension of brand emotion in online brand and anti-brand community to understand how their emotional feeling to the brand would affect their online participation behavior.

Throughout three decades of ethnographic study in emotion from facial expressions across different cultures, Ekman (1999) concluded that the basic emotions are anger, disgust, fear, happiness, sadness and surprise. He also added the emotions of amusement, contempt, contentment, embarrassment, excitement, guilt, pride in achievement, relief, satisfaction, sensory pleasure and shame across different cultures (Ekman, 1999).

In regards to emotional attachment, from the psychological perspective, it is believed that the higher the level of an individual's emotional attachment to another individual (for example, mother and child), the more likely the person is to commit to, invest in and even make sacrifice to the other person (Bowlby, 2008, Hazan and Shaver, 1994).

Attachment theory in psychology explains that the level of emotional attachment of a person to an object could predict the nature of his or her interaction with the object (Bowlby, 2005). Stronger attachments would connect to stronger feelings such as affection and passion, and lead to various behaviors such as maintaining proximity to the attached objects or persons. This demonstrates a natural human protection mechanism for people to look for psychological and/or physical protection from the attachment object (Thomson et al., 2005, Hazan and Zeifman, 1999).

Positive brand emotion has been seen to react against all odds and pardon negative customer experience to maintain positive brand reputation, brand-customer relationship and higher intention to repurchase (Huber et al., 2010, Awasthi et al., 2012).

Positive emotion has been found to be positively related to satisfaction to service, loyalty and recommendation to others (Wang et al., 2010). There has also been research that shows a significant relationship between positive brand emotion to actual purchase and brand related behaviour, such as choice of high involvement products, promoting a brand to others, defending for a brand, willingness to pay more and using product with brand logo (Park et al., 2010, Malär et al., 2011). This has also formed part of the brand experience, which has demonstrated an impact on consumers' long-term satisfaction and loyalty to a brand (Schmitt et al., 2009).

As such, consumers' emotional attachment might play a significant role in predicting their brand loyalty (i.e., commitment to brand), and willingness to pay a premium price) (i.e., financial sacrifice) to a brand in which their emotions are attached to (Thomson et al., 2005). In past studies, consumers could develop attachments to brands and products such as Coke and Hallmark (Slater, 2001). Emotions such as love for a brand have demonstrated their specific feelings toward special consumption objects (Kleine et al., 1995). Such affective attachment is considered to be a determinant and response of committed behavior in terms of long-term relationship between customers and brands (Fournier, 1998).

"It's difficult not to become emotional when you receive that sort of connection from perfect strangers. And you would have to be made of stone not to feel something. [...] I just feel that I want to give others the same sort of help that I received" (p.112) (Brodie et al., 2013).

The notion of positive and negative brand emotion is also closely associated with the concept of positive emotions and negative emotions that are prominent traits among others. Positive emotion is a quality of character to experience positive feeling such as enthusiasm, joyfulness and exhilaration. Alternatively, people with low emotions tend to experience negative feelings such as lethargy, anger, disgust and sadness. Being an emotion-based trait, affect forms a cognitive inclination through which people understand and approach experience (Watson et al., 1988). As such, as an indicator of affect, positive and negative emotions may affect how people recall information and subsequently guiding judgements and behaviors (Levin and Stokes, 1989).

Previous studies on social identity have indicated that social identity could carry a certain social emotion profiles. Social identity carries the role of providing individuals with information about “what to do” when a certain identity is enacted. It has been found to be associated with people’s specific emotion profile to provide information about “what to feel” during identity enactment (Kleine III et al., 1993). For example, “athletics are angry” is perceived an identity of sportsman for them to regulate and gain emotional experiences (Coleman and Williams, 2013). This is explained by the fact that identities have equipped an individual to be ready to make sense of the world in identity-consistent ways (Oyserman, 2009).

Management research also demonstrated that employees’ mood is significantly related to the engagement of extra-role citizenship behavior such as helping others and pro-social behavior at work (George, 1991, Jain et al., 2012). Yong et al.’s (2011) research findings show that the emotionally attached community members are more likely to exercise voluntary contribution than those who are not emotionally attached. Without fostering consumer emotion, members in a brand community may not be loyal or committed to a brand (Zhou et al., 2012).

3.3.3 Motives

Motive and motivation are the simple words that we use very often in our daily lives A motive is the psychological disposition of an individual, which constitutes one’s cognitive subsystem. Motivation can be seen as the decription of the process of how one’s motives are activated (Bretschneider and Leimeister, 2011). Motivation in the online brand community entails the psychological force that shares members’ desires or readiness to participate in knowledge and information sharing with other members in online brand communities (MacInnis et al., 1991, Wu and Sukoco, 2010).

Motive refers to a state of psychological or psychological arousal which influences how we behave (Kleinginna Jr and Kleinginna, 1981). Motives (individual factors) work together with incentives (situational factors) to create motivation (Atkinson, 1958, Heckhausen and Heckhausen, 2008, Schunk et al., 2008). In an online community context, motives for online brand community participation refers to all forces, internal or external, involved in accounting for the instigation, direction, and termination of behavior in online brand community (Lefrancois, 1980).

In the real offline situation, motive has demonstrated its impact on customers' behavior on revenge and reconciliation. When consumers show a positive motive to the firms, they are willing to go for reconciliation and reparatory behavior for the mistakes that they make. If they have negative motives, they will take revenge action and engage in retaliatory behaviors (Joireman et al., 2013).

Thus far, research about motives of marketing activity participation continues to be fragmented. The motivations of online media participation have been identified variously as rational (e.g., advocacy, knowledge sharing) and emotional (e.g., self-expression and social connection) (Krishnamurthy and Dou, 2008). Recognition of emotion(s) could have impact on certain motives (Sloman, 1987). As for social networking participation, self-status seeking, socializing, information and entertainment are the key motives (Park et al., 2009).

Recent research in user-generated media has found that entertainment, community development, information, self-expression and self-actualization are the key motives of online media participation (Shao, 2009, Courtois et al., 2009).

In Antikainen et al.'s (2010) review of online community users' participation motivation, it was found that altruism, recognition, ideology, knowledge exchange, monetary rewards, reciprocity, recreation, sense of efficacy and sense of obligation to contribute are the common motivations for online community participation (Antikainen et al., 2010).

Heinonen (2011) asserted that the classical thought of individuals as purely consumers is not valid in online media. Consumers' activities of online content production, consumption and participation are pertinent to certain motivations such as information search, social connection and entertainment.

Motives of pro-social, helping, emotion venting and networking will now be discussed.

3.3.3.1 Pro-social Motive

Pro-social motive is an other-oriented motive. There have been studies to demonstrate that the characteristics of pro-social behavior such as freedom of expression and motivation of social support are the important elements to attract people joining online communities (Herring, 2000, Wellman, 1997, Wellman et al., 2002, Wellman and Gulia, 1999, Derks et al., 2008). Pro-social personality is considered to be an element of volunteerism, which is the other-oriented empathy and helpfulness dimensions (Penner, 2002). The pro-social motive concerns the level of empathy and responsibility to others (Finkelstein, 2011).

Other research proposes that pro-social behavior cover altruism, helping, co-operation and solidarity behavior based on the social identity perspective that individuals support in-group members with pro-social motive to achieve intergroup helping, political solidarity and cooperation between groups. Pro-social emotion originates from the desire to help others, based on guilt, sympathy and moral outrage (Thomas et al., 2009b).

Many non-profit making organizations start to make use of the Internet to appeal to the Internet users' moral recognition for pro-social motive to support their organizations with different types of volunteer effort such as donation and volunteering work (Carlo et al., 2010, Sproull et al., 2005). Pro-social behavior could also lead to online voluntary citizenship behavior, such as knowledge sharing in online communities (Eastin and LaRose, 2005, Huang et al., 2009, Rioux and Penner, 2001).

In research about the role of identity among social activists, it is found that activists compare their expect identity with an organization or community's current identity to access if it could meet their motive for self-esteem and self-continuity for pro-social and activist behavior (Brickson, 2013). The dimension of moral identity has also demonstrated positive relations with self-reported pro-social behavior (Aquino et al., 2011).

3.3.3.2 Helping Motive

The fundamental motive of helping is that of concern for others' welfare (Brown et al., 2011). Helping motive can be interpreted as the level of compassion and reciprocity for the online community members, whereas helping is based upon personal need satisfaction of the helper (Spitzmuller and Van Dyne, 2012). It perpetuates and creates reciprocity norms within a community or group of people. Helping motive is an other-focused motive which considers the benefits of the others (Giacalone and Rosenfeld, 2013, Pai and Arnott, 2013).

There have been studies in topic of altruism to understand people's motives for helping others (Kankanhalli et al., 2005, Lin, 2007, Hsu and Lin, 2008, He and Wei, 2009). Such research has demonstrated that individuals of higher motive of helping others in the online community tend to exhibit altruistic behavior in the online community, such as sharing knowledge (Kankanhalli et al., 2005).

The stronger ones in the online community have demonstrated a willingness to help the weaker ones (e.g., newcomers) and the like-minded people, e.g., fans of a certain brand (Dholakia and Algesheimer, 2009). The helping motive has led to a positive impact on community participation (Wang et al., 2013).

By doing so, online community members consider the act of help satisfying and enjoyable (Wasko & Faraj 2000). Such noble feeling and satisfaction of helping others will further motivate one to practice organizational citizenship behavior (e.g., helping others, recommendation and providing feedback) (Groth 2005). In the online media, voluntary behavior such as knowledge sharing has had significant impact on citizenship behavior as a result of altruism and the helping motive (Osterloh and Frey, 2000).

3.3.3.3 Emotion Venting Motive

Emotion plays an important role in shaping of group membership indirectly through shaping emotion norms and directly through shaping a behavior (Thomas et al., 2009). Studies of organizational stress have identified that emotional release is one of the key strategies for coping with stress. Based on their definition of emotional release, the motive of emotion venting is defined as the deposition of cathartic expression of feelings and an unburdening to others and a reduction in uncertainty by resorting to channels for emotional and practical support (Dewe and Guest, 1990).

Scholars argue that consumers have particular purposes in sharing with others their negative consumption experiences (Tuzovic, 2010, Wetzer et al., 2007). In essence, “experiences of anger, frustration, and irritation seem to be related to N-WOM for goals for venting and taking revenge” (p.674)(Wetzer et al., 2007).

Computer-mediated communication is usually believed to be a less effective media for the communication of emotion especially implicit emotion due to its lack of body contact and visibility (Derks et al., 2008). Nevertheless, since the launch of Web 2.0 technology, Internet users have been able to make use of different applications and interaction platforms to express their emotion. Anonymity of identity, free and immediate transmission of message in the online media nurture a safe and efficient environment and make consumers feel more comfortable in venting their anger about a topic or organization without hesitation. Online community provides a 24/7 platform for the Internet users to vent their emotion and dissatisfaction about life, a particular person or an issue (Derks et al., 2008).

A recent study about consumers' reaction to firm's service failure and failed recovery reveals that customers emotional venting motive could include a mix of answer, desire for revenge and desire for reconciliation (Joireman et al., 2013). This provides an interesting insight into the fact that supporters of a certain brand could vent their emotions to the anti-brand community in the desire for reconciliation and in the hope that the firm will take action to improve and rectify the mistakes made.

The recent research about revenge behavior research considers complaint as a mean of emotion venting is an indirect behavior. Such behavior includes the sharing of consumers' negative experience with others to denigrate an organization to make others re-consider the attitude and relationship with the organization (Grégoire et al., 2010, Thomson et al., 2012, Delzen, 2014).

3.3.3.4 Networking Motive

The motive of networking can be seen as the drive of developing relationships among contacts within a social network in terms of range and intensity. Range of networking refers to the level of access to useful resources from wider network whereas intensity of networking refers to the extent of the community's resources committed to such a relationship in terms of amount of resource exchanged and frequency of contact (Zhao and Aram, 1995).

People join online communities to look for the resources of socio-emotional support. This is equivalent to a companionship which is built upon online and offline interactions with like-minded people in the online community to obtain support and build up friendship. Online communities provide a wholesome platform for people from different parts of the world who share the same interest and purpose to interact 24/7 (Wiertz and de Ruyter, 2007).

The Internet users join online communities to maintain interpersonal interconnectivity. Ellison et al.'s (2007) study illustrates that online social networking media is used for building up social capital and social image (Grant and Mayer, 2009). Such benefits is "derived from establishing and maintaining contact with other people such as social support, friendship, and intimacy" (Dholakia et al. 2004).

Building up friendships and personal relationships are found to be one of the key and primary reasons for online community participation (Ridings and Gefen, 2004, Bagozzi and Dholakia, 2006, Madupu and Cooley, 2010, Preece, 2000, Ren et al., 2012).

One key function of online community is social networking with people in the online media (Ellison et al., 2007, Brown et al., 2007). Wang and Chen (2011) suggest that online communities have a contagious attraction to people. When individuals realize that many people including their friends and acquaintances participate in and enjoy the interaction in an online community, they tend to join it to be included as part of the community and seek recognition through networking with others (Fang and Neufeld, 2009, Wang and Chen, 2012).

Social networking media such as Blogs, Facebook, LinkedIn and Twitter are widely used by Internet users not only to maintain and widen the social network with the family, friends, colleagues, working partners and acquaintances, but also to be used as a referral network to make more friends online, to widen the social network with the like-minded people in different aspects, interest and topics in life. It also allows social integration of the members in order to maintain and establish contacts with others (Flanagin and Metzger, 2001, Nambisan and Baron, 2007, Madupu and Cooley, 2012).

3.4 Consequences of Online Brand and Anti-brand Community Participation: Community Citizenship Behavior

Level of participation is one of the most critical factors for the perpetual survival of online communities (Algesheimer et al., 2005b, Casaló et al., 2008, Koh and Kim, 2004).

Three aspects of online community participation are considered in Casaló et al. (2008) and Koh and Kim's (2004) research:

- 1) The effort to maintain the dynamics of the online community;
- 2) The level of contribution to help other community members; and
- 3) The involvement and excitement to upload information and responses in the community

In this research, community citizenship behavior is the key measurement of community members' level of participation, and also of co-existing consequences as a result of their participation. The measurement of community participation, in other words, refers to members' level of functional and emotional contribution to the online communities in terms of quality and time spent in sharing knowledge (e.g., submission of video clip), and relationship building (Ma and Agarwal, 2007, Wiertz and de Ruyter, 2007). Citizenship is considered as a concept to "integrate all members of a society under a common identity with undifferentiated status" (p.32)(Marshall, 2006).

Community citizenship behavior "shapes the motivation of members to engage in safeguarding the image of a community, to demonstrate the strength of community, to resolve conflicts, and to create a harmonious community" (p.203) (Chen et al., 2010).

Many studies have shown that members' engagement in a community has a direct impact on community outcome factors such as trust, commitment, satisfaction and word-of-mouth (Algesheimer et al., 2005b, Casaló et al., 2008, Jang et al., 2008, Lee and Youn, 2009, McAlexander et al., 2003, Woisetschläger et al., 2008).

McMilian and Chavis' sense of community (1986) explains that if members regard themselves as members of a community, they will commit themselves to the community with support to the community and members. They are also willing to share their time, experiences and community history with each other (Blanchard, 2008). Two key success factors of online communities are the willingness of the members' participation and their spontaneous behavior, which is in line with online community citizenship behavior (Ryoo and Kwak, 2011). In Anaza and Zhao's (2013) research about e-shopping, they have identified the e-shoppers' willingness to help, recommendation and helping behavior.

The concept of community citizenship behavior is derived from a well-developed concept of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) from the school of management. It is one of the most often used concepts to characterize customers' multiple forms of voluntary behavior (Groth, 2005, Yen et al., 2011). It refers to "behavior that contributes to the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context that supports task performance" (Organ, 1997). The effective performance of an organization relies not only on control and formal structure, but also depends on the "willingness of persons to contribute efforts to the cooperative system" (p.83) (Barnard, 1938).

In Organ's (1988) definition of OCB, employees demonstrating such behavior are described as "good soldiers". Table 4 tabulates the dimensions of OCB and its application in online community.

In Netemeyer et al.'s (1997) investigation of OCB in personal selling context, OCB is considered contributing to the overall performance of an organization:

"OCBs (1) provide a means of managing the inter-dependencies among members of a work unit, which increases the collective outcomes achieved; (2) reduces the need for an organization to devote scarce resources to simple maintenance functions, which free up resources for productivity; and (3) improve the ability of others to perform their jobs by freeing up time for more efficient planning, scheduling, problem solving." (p.86)

From a social perspective, community citizenship behavior refers to "those activities that are essential to community functioning, including welcoming new members, being involved in community building activities, recognizing other community members who contribute informative messages, discouraging inappropriate behavior, and preventing exploitation of members" (p.388) (Bateman et al., 2006, Yong et al., 2011).

In the online community context, based on Yong et al.'s (2011) definition of virtual community citizenship behavior, online community citizenship behavior is defined as "the spontaneous, voluntary behavior with a positive influence on the effective functioning of an online community" (p.384). This concept has started to be used to understand people's behavior in online gaming communities and discussion forum for knowledge sharing (Shin and Kim, 2010, Yu and Chu, 2007). For example, online gamers are behaving conscientiously in the online gaming community by providing useful information and enduring the consequence of no return to prevent problems created by other members (Yu and Chu, 2007). Outcome factors are categorized into member citizenship behavior. Their key dimensions are recommendations, helping members, providing feedback, and loyalty (Groth, 2005).

Based on the concept of organizational citizenship behavior, Yi et al. (2011) elaborated on marketing discipline by proposing customer citizenship behavior as a “voluntary or non-explicit behavior that benefit and go beyond customer role expectations” (p.452) (Gruen, 1995). Despite the on-going discussion, previous literature proposes that behavior such as constructive involvement in service improvement suggestion, positive word-of-mouth, and different courteous behavior are the potential constituents of consumer citizenship behavior (Yi et al., 2011, Rosenbaum and Massiah, 2007). The dimensions of online community citizenship behavior illustrated in Table 4 are discussed.

Table 4: Organ's Main Dimensions of Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Application in the Online Community

Main Dimensions of OCBs	Main Current Applications of OCBs	Application in Online Community
Helping Others	Altruism at the workplace; voluntary actions aimed at helping others, supporting or encouraging other persons; efforts to avoid interpersonal conflicts; promotion of cooperation among employees; helping others in case of absence or work overload; technical support to co-workers or clients; etc.	Helping others
Sportsmanship	Tolerance of organizational difficulties, inconveniences, and co-worker behavior; accepting work-related problems without complaining excessively; positively attitude; etc.	Willingness to moderate
Organizational loyalty	Support for organizational objectives; defence of the corporate image to stakeholders; positive representation of the company to various	Recommendation
Organizational compliance	Respect for explicit and implicit organizational rules; respect for deadlines, punctuality; adherence to the values of the organization; etc.	Loyalty
Individual initiative	Internal involvement; sharing ideas and opinions; making constructive suggestions; sharing information and knowledge to improve practices; open questioning of the status quo and inefficient management habits; etc.	Knowledge sharing
Civic virtue	Commitment or interest to the organization from the macro-level such as expression of one's opinion, willingness to participate in its governance	Feedback, Recommendation
Self-development	Voluntary behavior to develop personal knowledge, skills, and abilities that could contribute to organizational functioning.	Willingness to moderate

Source: Boiral, 2009, Organ et al., 2006

3.4.1 Helping Others

Substantial academic findings from the literature based upon helping behavior and theory demonstrate that the intrinsic benefits namely feeling proud or good about oneself is a major motive of helping (Dovidio et al., 1991). Helping others refers to voluntary actions which assist another community member with a problem. Helping behavior such as providing feedback for website improvement allow consumers to show off their expertise and superiority for self-image enhancement. As such, consumers are happy to act as an advocate to help and support other members to solve their problems (Yen et al., 2011).

Groth's (2005) research also demonstrated that when the customers are satisfied with an organization, which lives up to its promise, they would be likely to practise reciprocal helping behavior. This would also help the customers develop future obligation to the organization, trust and expectations. (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004).

To understand such volunteering behavior, theories of selflessness and altruism are adopted to address the motivation of helping others (Clary and Snyder, 1991). In essence, the basic motivation of the volunteers is to help others. From the social exchange theory perspective, helping others is a result of functional or rational choice in exchange of goods and services with others, for example, community concern, esteem enhancement and altruistic and humanitarian values (Snyder and Omoto, 1992).

In the online shopping context, helping others' behavior refers to the e-shoppers' constructive behavior in helping other customers throughout the online service process and e-shoppers' policing effort to make sure that other customers take part in the exchange process with ease (Anaza and Zhao, 2013).

3.4.2 Recommendation

Brand recommendations are considered as “the extent to which a person expresses willingness to recommend the brand to others” (p.42) (Price and Arnould, 1999). In Muniz and O’Guinn’s (2001) studies, it is evident that experienced and regular online community members tend to provide guidance and positive information to the visitors or lurkers to help them make decision and solve problem by explaining to them using the details of service and product offered by the brand owner out of moral responsibility to retain the members in the community and guide them to the proper use of brand. This is demonstrated by the members’ ‘missionary zeal’ to promote the brand out of their voluntary motivation (McAlexander et al., 2002).

In doing so, brands are receiving less-costly advertising prices by the general public. Consequently, Internet users may choose a product or service through people they feel they can trust. As seen prior to the online community boom, this is a much more influential method to trigger the customers’ extra-role behavior of recommendation (Groth 2005).

Recent studies about online shopping reveal that e-shoppers’ recommendation behavior is seen as spreading knowledge about the brand, company, products and services, which is considered more valued by the existing and prospective customers than the company-generated communication (Lu et al., 2014, Mudambi and Schuff, 2010).

In an online brand community, advocating by recommendation on organizations, brands, products/services shows positive impact on consumer engagement.

“I think that the [brand name] is suitable for you. Very powerful and very under priced (p.111) (Brodie et al., 2013)”.

3.4.3 Feedback

According to Oxford dictionary, feedback refers to “Information about reactions to a product, a person’s performance of a task, etc. which is used as a basis for improvement” (Dictionary, 2006).

Leaving feedback is one of the most common activities in online community. Many people nowadays have made use of the review feature in online community to find out the feedback of Internet users to a company, its products and services (Heinonen, 2011). Likewise organizations provide the feedback section as an effective way to respond to the customers’ experience immediately (Chan and Yazdanifard, 2014).

Feedback to the product and service of a brand and organization is important to a business. Research shows that people’s online feedback could lead to significant product innovation (Janzik and Raasch, 2011). Since the introduction of online brand communities, brands are able to receive criticisms, see benefits of each product and review customers’ feedback about competitor products to improve products that will suit the customers’ needs (Ma et al., 2013).

Blanchard and Markus’ (2002) research has shown that the online community members are obliged to ‘give back’ to the community. As compared to the offline platform of communication, the interactive and record keeping nature of online community participation has favoured the exchange of direct feedback on the message boards or rating system (Shao, 2009, Tonteri et al., 2011). The level of social media community participation in review shows the positive impact on feedback posting in the website (Goldsmith et al., 2013).

An important factor for the sustainability of brand community is the high quality of the user feedback and information to the community members (Adjei et al., 2012). Nowadays, online communities bring customers together to enhance their enthusiasm to the brands by providing feedback to the brand owners online, which is also reviewed and discussed by other participants as reference for purchase decision and choice of the items fitting them the most (Delzen, 2014).

3.4.4 Knowledge Sharing

Knowledge is regarded as one of the most key drivers and resources in organizations (Choe, 2004, Tohidinia and Mosakhani, 2010). Knowledge sharing, from the communication point of view, is a kind of communication, by which the knowledge re-constructors acquires knowledge from the knowledge owners (Wei-Tsong and Zu-Hao, 2011). Knowledge re-constructors then comprehend and internalize new knowledge along with their existing knowledge (Fernie et al., 2003). Knowledge sharing has been recognized as an indispensable factor not only for individual learning, but also for organizational competitiveness and growth (Smith et al., 2012, Alavi and Leidner, 2001).

Based on the literature in organization behavior, knowledge sharing refers to a social interaction culture, involving the exchange of community members' knowledge, experiences, and skills through the whole online community (Lin, 2007).

Social identification is believed to be a fostering factor for sharing knowledge in a community because it has been identified as a driver of motivation for behavioral intention and actual behavior of knowledge sharing (Cho et al., 2010, Wu and Sukoco, 2010, Zhou et al., 2012).

Knowledge sharing is defined as “instances whereby a member responds to a posted problem by sharing what they know” (Sharratt and Usoro, 2003). Traditionally, knowledge sharing is regarded as an in-role behavior as part of their expected performance for an incumbent of a position for extrinsic rewards and sanctions (Morrison, 1994, Teh and Yong, 2011). It is a provision of know-how and information to collaborate with and assist others in developing new ideas and solving problems (Wang and Noe, 2010). Furthermore, there is evidence that organizational citizenship behavior demonstrated positive impact on intention to share knowledge (Teh and Yong, 2011, Brodie et al., 2013).

The motivations of knowledge sharing may be classified as intrinsic and extrinsic (Chiu et al., 2006, Lin, 2007). By sharing knowledge in online brand community, the members expect to receive intrinsic benefits such as sense of achievement as a product expert or opinion leader, receive recognition and socialize with others (Shih-Wei, 2010, Wu and Sukoco, 2010). Knowledge sharing in online communities is highly related to their level of consistent participation (Ma and Agarwal, 2007).

In the online community, all members are volunteers and therefore participate for intrinsic rewards. Knowledge sharing is considered part of the community citizenship behavior and usually knowledge is contributed through informal and open discussion. Reputation, reciprocity, community interest and altruism are also considered to be drivers for knowledge sharing. The outcome of knowledge sharing are thus good for the public (Wasko and Faraj, 2000, Wasko and Faraj, 2005, Shih-Wei, 2010).

Naturally online community members have common purposes and interests in sharing their experiences and interests (Tseng and Kuo, 2010). Members with higher identification to the community tend to be more motivated to share their knowledge and exchange their expertise opinions in both social and work team (Chiu et al., 2006, Triandis et al., 1990, Ho et al., 2012) and online community setup (Wei-Tsong and Zu-Hao, 2011). Users will usually have a higher intention to maintain long-term relationship and trust to the online communities that they actively participate. They show a higher likelihood of sharing confidential knowledge and information to the like-minded people (Smith et al., 2012).

Research about online blogs and online communities shows that social identity, and the personal aspects of personal identity such as online kindness, contribute to members' willingness to share (Muniz, 2011, Yu et al., 2010). The behavior of helping and networking has shown positive impact on willingness to share knowledge. Knowledge sharing enables users to receive recognition from others as an expert (Wei-Tsong and Zu-Hao, 2011).

3.4.5 Willingness to Moderate

Devoted online community members are willing to contribute their time and effort to regulating members' behavior in the online community (Emens et al., 2014). In some communities, the Webmaster and authorized people of an online community will usually assign a role to the active member(s) to be the moderator(s) (Noble et al., 2012).

The tasks of an experienced moderator are to: a) clarify, but not to edit or police, b) understand participants' needs, even if it means reading between the lines, c) keep the conversation going and d) put members at center stage (Williams and Cothrel, 2000).

In most cases, an online community is regulated and maintained by at least a Webmaster or moderator(s). In the online community, moderators assume the role of facilitators, community organizers and technical trouble shooters (Gray, 2004) In the daily operation, they take on the function of connecting members, keeping the members in focus, preventing abuse, encouraging discussion and mediating arguments or conflicts among members (Berge, 1995). As such, they are responsible for fostering and shaping the community according to the vision of the setup and maintain its sustainable operation by encouraging newbies and passive members (e.g., 'lurkers') to visit and participate more frequently (Koh et al., 2007, Preece et al., 2004).

In doing this, voluntary moderators feel they have a direct influence on the day-to-day running of a brand, whilst brand moderators are able to keep the focus on advising on present products on fostering ideas for future brand improvements (Emens et al., 2014).

3.5 Theories Relating to Anti-brand Participation

Anti-brand participation from the consumer is a fast-developing concept. With anti-brand participation having an impact on reputation both now and for the future, it is vital to establish an understanding of the theory behind why the consumer is motivated to participate, in addition to the best method for managing such communities. In this section, the following four relevant theories: (1) Postmodern consumer culture, (2) Protest framing theory, (3) Collective action theory and (4) Brand hegemony are reviewed.

3.5.1 New Social Movement

New Social Movement (NSM) Theory refers to ideological and cultural change through social movement. From the consumer perspective, the contemporary transformation and evolution of consumerism such as anti-advertising, anti-McDonalds and anti-Nike activities reflect the activists' collective thinking based on the Western religious roots of evangelical identity. Such movement stemmed from petitions against a certain industrial or marketing practice. New social movements are "cast as historically specific responses to the totalizing and hegemonic cultural forms defined by capitalist market" (p.475) (Kozinets and Handelman, 2004).

Some ethical consumers nowadays seek to consider human and/or animal welfare and the environment as a consequence of their consumption lifestyles (Harrison et al., 2005, Shaw and Riach, 2011). As such, they share topics of anti-brand, anti-corporate and anti-commercialization with other ethical consumers (Sandıkçı and Ekici, 2009).

The central consumer cultural issue of consumerism is a management of the self-identity. The ideology of social movements usually demonstrates the following six elements (Touraine and Duff, 1981, Hollenbeck and Zinkhan, 2010):

- a) Identity: This refers to a self-defined collective identity of the members or activists. They see themselves as noble citizens and high-minded members of society because they are spiritually and morally obliged to inspire and convert others since they know right from wrong (Campbell, 1994).

"Participation in social movement frequently involves an enlargement of personal identity for participants and offers fulfilment and realization of self" (Gamson 1992: 56).

- b) Opposition: This is the activists' depiction and identification of their adversary. It refers to activists' negative sentiment to oppose the evil of greedy corporations which creates selfish and greedy consumer consciousness (Kozinets and Handelman, 2004)
- c) Totality: The announcement of movement objectives by activists to be achieved through the struggle to change consumerist ideology and consumer culture to appeal to the consumers to question the ethics and morals of companies, their actions and implication to the society and environment (Kozinets and Handelman, 2004)
- d) Gaining autonomy: In view of the hegemony of many big firms nowadays, activists are fighting for autonomy for greater control and seeking power over the socio-culture world (Cohen, 1985). They see themselves as "aware, free, altruistic, and mobilized, but the mainstream consumers as "unaware, hypnotized, selfish, and lazy" (p.477) (Kozinets and Handelman, 2004).
- e) Radicalizing modern values: In new social movement participants achieve autonomy through radicalizing modern values such as political and economic modernization, which have led to true democracy (Welton, 1993). In the context of community, people participate in anti-brand community to pursue economic, political and cultural changes from the brand perspective.
- f) Transforming the individual person: New social movement proposes the quest for personal development in terms of finding one's place in the world (Offe, 1985, Welton, 1993). Anti-brand communities provide a free and liberal environment for the like-minded consumers to create their own roles, meanings, practices and identities to attain enlightenment and self-renewal (Hollenbeck and Zinkhan, 2010).

New social movements are in line with some liberal postmodern scholarship and critical theory scholarship interpretation of consumers as “the oppressed underclass pitted against elite business adversaries” (p.695) (Kozinets and Handelman, 2004). Anti-brand activities are no longer something related to the youth, but a full-fledged social movement for everyone (Holt, 2002). Overall the central theme of such movements is to moralise collective and individual consumption decisions in order to shift an individual’s consumption ideology of self-expression, freedom or hedonism to self-disciplinary, moral, communal and religious form of collective consumption (Kozinets and Handelman, 1998, Kozinets and Handelman, 2004).

As a result of the acceleration of information transmission through advancement in communication technologies, the evolution of “fast activism” phenomenon provides a flexible, convenient, time and cost effective access to act on their political standpoints without stepping out of their physical comfort zone through the social media such as one-click e-petition and online donation instead of demonstration in the street and sit-ins (Eaton, 2010).

3.5.2 Protest Framing Theory

In Ward and Ostrom's (2006) qualitative study of negative word of mouth in customer-created complaint web sites, they found out that the web sites owners:

"1) present commercial failures as betrayals of customer rights worthy of public outrage, 2) "amplify" the seriousness of the harm inflicted, 3) stereotype firm executives as evil betrayers of trusting consumers. 4) point to the posted complaints of other consumers to attribute blame to the firm, 5) present themselves as crusaders fighting for the respect due all customers, and 6) encourage other consumers to perceive themselves as a group, united in their opposition to the firm (p.224) (Ward and Ostrom, 2006).

The website creators and participants resort to online complaints in order to respond to the ignored complaints, due to betrayals of the organization's responsibility to attend to their complaints.

This concept originated from the sociology field. Frames refer to the "schemata of interpretation" by the social actors to shape a social situation to influence others' behavior (Goffman, 1974). Therefore, protest frames are regarded as an attitude and value of an individual or group that are used to invoke others' recognition and interpretation of their grievances from the injustice, identity and agency sub-frame perspectives (Snow et al., 1986, Gamson, 1992).

3.5.2.1 Injustice Subframe

It resorts to the application of injustice with exaggeration about the harmful, unjust, intolerable, abusive and "horror story" to the target to trigger moral outrage publicly, let their voice be heard and call for corrective action (Gamson, 1992, Snow and Benford, 1992).

3.5.2.2 Identity Subframe

Snow and Benford (1992) realize that “a central feature of the framing process in relation to collective action is the generation of diagnostic attributions” (p.138). The protesters identify themselves as the elites and crusaders of the society for their unique foresight. They also identify themselves and seek social affirmation by stereotyping and blaming the opposed “out groups” as the evil and immoral ones based on their betrayal experience.

3.5.2.3 Agency Subframe

Protesters believe in the collective power of the consumers. By exercising agency framing, the protesters could promote a certain sense of collective efficacy to induce people’s perceived identity and mobilize the collective power to voice out their grievance to a firm to ask for punishment for the betrayal on protesters and society (Ward and Ostrom, 2006).

3.5.3 Collective Action

Collective action is defined as “actions undertaken by individuals or groups for a collective purpose, such as the advancement of a particular ideology or idea or the political struggle with another group” (p. 525) (Brunsting and Postmes, 2002). There are three psychological elements for motivating collective action (Postmes, 2007, Gamson, 1992, Klandermans, 2004):

- 1) A sense of injustice. Based on relative deprivation theory, the subjective psychological experience of sense of injustice (i.e., deprivation) could lead to perceived inequality. In-group discussions of injustice could lead to collective actions.
- 2) Efficacy. When individuals consider taking collective action, they would have a mental calculation of personal gain and loss to make sure that they will benefit from the action.

- 3) Social identity and identification. Fundamentally collective action is possible only when the group members share the same opinion and ready to mobilize on behalf of the group. Apart from considering the intra-group dynamic, the actions of the out-group could also unite the in-group to enhance their social identification, so as to ensure a distinction between in- and out-group.

Through the collective action of protest, people resort to changes and justice. A protest is staged by people “who come to share a continuous identity... who share anger about injustice done to them, and who share the conviction that collectively they can act and exact changes from those whom they hold responsible” (p.211) (Klandermans, 1997).

The Internet serves as an effective vehicle to allow users to unite and organize in a much more powerful and sophisticated way in terms of the effectiveness of mobilizing people in the mass media from all over the world to internalize social identities and achieve social involvement. It could also accentuate common identity in an otherwise heterogeneous group (Brunsting and Postmes, 2002). Online media has played a catalyst role in speeding up collective action:

“... Technologies help people develop collective identities and identify a common complaint or concern, and this enhances the public expression of new kinds of private interests. When that public expression of private interests is focused on a public good, we argue that the collective action process is involved....” (p.528) (Bimber et al., 2005).

Studies have demonstrated that the online platform has overcome traditional barriers to activism (e.g., family, career) and created stronger attraction to mobilize like-minded in-group and relevant other groups and members to participate in collective action and social movements, due to their anonymous nature (Eaton, 2010). The Internet also allows members of less powerful groups to share their opinions that could be otherwise be sanctioned by more power groups. This removes hindrance for outsiders and peripheral members to take part in the transparent environment. As such, the non-mainstream groups, new members and sympathizers can make use of the medium to undertake collective action against the mainstream out-group (e.g., MNCs and brands). Brunsting and Postmes (2002) pointed out that:

“If the Web increases the salience of the social dimension and provides the strategic conditions that empower the expression of social identity, it will mobilize people and stimulate collective action” (p.530).

3.5.4 Brand Hegemony

Brand hegemony refers to “both the domination of one brand over others (e.g., Microsoft) and the domination of this brand over its consumers” (Cova and White, 2010). For productive consumers, they are frustrated because the brand owners take advantage of their contribution in the co-creation process. The companies just keep the value and benefits but seldom return to the consumers (Zwick et al., 2008). This matches with Cova et al.’s (2007) forecast:

Where once tribes were seen as transformative to their members, we are beginning to see how they are transformative to business and communicative practices and through them to society itself (p.71).

On one hand, customers are not paid for their social cooperation, knowledge or passion to the brand. On the other hand, companies even charge a price premium as a result of their fruits of labour from the co-creation of products, services and brand success. As such, consumers gather together to rebel against the double exploitation from the brands and companies. Some frustrated customers create competitor brands in their own counter-brand communities to compete with the brands they used to support (e.g. counter-brand community against Game Workshop) (Cova and White, 2010).

This is in line with Kozinets et al.'s (2008) idea of consumer tribes and their anti-brand action to corporations on the Internet, "in particular, when those corporations are seen as to be acting abusively, unethically, or irresponsibly" (p.353).

3.6 Summary

The concept of online brand community has grown over the past decade, aided by the launch of Web 2.0 technology to enable interaction and co-creation of content by the Internet users.

Online brand communities in form of Facebook, Twitter, blog and forum have been widely adopted by the Fortune 500 corporations to build up brand recognition, loyalty and sales promotion (Boyd and Ellison 2007). However, communities fail to build the sense of community among the members to engage them to make use of the contagious power of social media to achieve the sustainability of business (Culnan et al., 2010). Practitioners are still adopting viral marketing to drive turnover by posting standardized message to the media without understanding how to convey the message to trigger their motive, attitude and behavior from the individual and collective level (Hanna et al., 2011).

Communities can exploit the identity, emotion and motivation of the brand community members to help them achieve a successful marketing strategy. Nevertheless, thus far, most theories and knowledge have been developed based on offline activities. There has been no comprehensive understanding of the brand community members' participation behavior in the online mode.

Online brand community is believed to promote consumer interaction, participation and brand loyalty. Previous research has sought to explore different factors relating to participation; however it has overlooked how those factors might bring forth some important consequences, which are important to the success of the online brand community (Hanna and Knight, 2011). It is fair to say that unless practitioners have a clearer overview of factors contributing to the members' participation, they will not be able to plan and execute the strategy effectively to encourage participation.

Due to the increasing amount of time that consumers have spent in online media, online brand communities have become an indispensable marketing tool for better customer relationship management (Weinberg and Pehlivan, 2011). This view is based on a presumption that the brand successfully implements their strategy. Previous studies have yet to define or identify the factors that increase people's voluntary participation in online brand communities and its impact on the success of the communities. Although some studies have found out that regular participation has led to the success of an online community, the sustaining and fundamental drives and factors motivating regular participation are yet to be identified (Ardichvili et al., 2003, Woisetschläger et al., 2008).

Furthermore, even though some studies have examined the factors motivating people's participation in communities, they are more concerned with overall participation in online community (Dholakia and Bagozzi, 2004, Dholakia et al., 2004, O'Murchu et al., 2004, Wasko and Faraj, 2005) or offline brand communities (McAlexander et al., 2002, Muniz and O'Guinn, 2001, Schouten et al., 2007). Very little research has studied the antecedents and consequences of online brand community participation concurrently (Madupu and Cooley, 2010, Woisetschläger et al., 2008), let alone the study of online anti-brand community.

The evolution of online anti-brand is almost an ignored and unexplored frontier. Thus far, there have been studies of online anti-brand communities in a gradual manner as an alternative study (Hollenbeck and Zinkhan, 2006, Hollenbeck and Zinkhan, 2010, Krishnamurthy and Kucuk, 2009, Kucuk, 2008b, Kucuk, 2008a, Kucuk, 2010).

In the setup of online brand and anti-brand community, the participation and contribution of members are voluntary and are represented as an in-group. This basically matches with the concept of the well-established management called organizational citizenship behavior in an offline mode (Groth, 2005, Organ, 1988, Organ and Konovsky, 1989, Organ et al., 2006). To this point, it would appear that this is a shortage of studies investigating the unpaid members' voluntary in-group behavior in online brand and anti-brand communities. Apart from the adaptability of existing established concepts of organizational citizenship behavior, it is interesting to understand how common online participation and reciprocal behavior such as being willing to moderate and share knowledge would fit to the concept of citizenship behavior from the online community perspective.

Chapter 4: Research Methodology

4.1 Introduction

This chapter firstly introduces the methodological design of the study. This is followed by a description of how the qualitative focus group discussions and in-depth interviews were prepared. Then, details of the quantitative survey, namely the sampling procedure, data collection method, and statistical analysis methodology are discussed.

4.2 Design of the Study

According to Creswell (2009), research is “an inquiry process of understanding based on distinct methodological traditions of inquiry that explore a social or human problem. The researcher builds a complex, holistic picture, analyzes words, reports detailed views of informants and conducts the study in a natural setting”. In this research, a mixed-method approach is adopted. By using both qualitative and quantitative research, this research seeks to offset the weaknesses each approach inherits, and gain in depth and breadth of corroboration.

Qualitative research by means of focus group discussions and in-depth interviews was conducted to understand people’s reasons for online brand and anti-brand participation and the behavioral consequences. The findings of the qualitative study were used to identify missing links and develop new concepts with relevant arguments for the development of hypotheses that provide a sound conceptual model for the ensuing quantitative research.

4.3 Qualitative Research

The exploratory qualitative research tools of focus group discussion and in-depth interview were used to understand the general attitudes and behavior of online community participation, based on users' different background and experiences.

4.3.1 Focus Group Discussion

The objectives of online focus group discussions are three-fold:

- a) Understand the reasons for joining online communities;
- b) Discuss the importance and relevance of proposed constructs in the conceptual model for the quantitative research.
- c) Discuss online community participation behavior

4.3.2 In-depth Interview

Three types of online community stakeholders, members, founders of online community, community managers and directors in social media agencies were interviewed. They were chosen because they had a direct and indirect impact on the existing and future development of online communities. Some contemporary consumer behaviors were also discussed to understand how such behaviors are related to online community behavior.

The objectives of the interviews with the online community managers were to understand:

- a) from the online community managers' perspective online community members' attitudes and behavior;
- b) the dynamics of online communities;
- c) how online community members communicate with each other;
- d) collect some "classical examples" of online community members to exemplify some online community attitudes and behavior.

The objectives of interviews with online community founders are to understand:

- a) the reasons for setting up online and anti-communities;
- b) founders' perspective on online community members attitudes and behaviors; and
- c) experiences and expectations on online community management.

The objectives of interviews with online community members are to understand:

- a) the reasons for joining online communities;
- b) their attitudes and behaviors in online communities;
- c) what will affect their participation and contribution in online community.

The objectives of interviews with social media directors were to understand:

- a) development of online and anti-communities; and
- b) determinant factors for success of online communities

4.3.3 Sampling

Theoretical sampling was used to collect codes and analyze data jointly. In order to understand the behavior of the participants in the online brand and anti-brand communities, participants at different levels of experience and frequency of participation were recruited. Other key stakeholders such as moderators, community founders and directors from online media agencies were also interviewed in order to compare their opinions and derive a better understand of people's motives of participation and behavior in online brand and anti-brand communities from a multiple stakeholders' perspective (Ritchie et al., 2013).

4.3.4 Invitation to the Focus Group Discussion and In-depth Interview

Participants for focus group discussions were recruited on campus at the University of Warwick (UK). Recruitment posters were posted around the campus to encourage registration to a dedicated website http://bit.ly/online_community for people who are interested in participating in offline and online research about online communities. The respondents were asked to complete an online recruitment form about their demographics and Internet usage background (Appendix 1).

A total of 12 participants were selected based on their experience in an online community or social networking site, average number of hours spent per week in online community and knowledge of online anti- communities. The grouping of participants for the focus group discussion was based on a diversified spilt of gender, occupation, age and Internet usage experience in order to avoid the dominance of a certain people in each group (Gaiser, 1997).

As for the in-depth interviews, the community managers were recruited through referral. They were both community managers overseeing the work of moderators in the social media agency they worked for. They both had more than 10 years of experience in online communities. Apart from managing other moderators, each of them was now responsible for moderating more than 5 online communities for different organizations. Most online communities were for multinational corporations or for nationwide media with more than 5,000 members.

The online community manager is appointed by an organization or through online media agency to ensure the smooth operation of online community by overseeing the day-to-day operation, to:

- keep track of different users and make sure that everyone is getting along;
- regulate members to follow the rules; and
- ban people who breached the terms and conditions of the community.

The founders for in-depth interviews were recruited through online community links collected for the upcoming online survey. Two founders were interviewed. One of them had founded an online anti- media community against Facebook and other mainstream media. The other one was the founder of a charity organization for promoting social media in developing countries. They were chosen because their communities had more than 1,000 members. They both had active participation in the online communities and understood the dynamics of the communities.

Online community founders establish online communities, and are usually in charge of communication or public relations in an organization. Some online communities are set up by enthusiastic people who are interested in discussing particular issues about industry, organization or specific issue.

Six online community members were recruited from the online community database about social topics such as charity. They were chosen based on achieving a good mix of demographics such as gender, occupation, country of residence, and also experience and time spent in online communities. A recruitment message was sent to 300 online communities to register for the recruitment website (Appendix 1). Finally, six online community members were chosen from the list of eighty-two registered people.

Two directors working in social media agencies were interviewed. The agencies they both worked for were international setups with global presence for supporting multinational corporate clients.

4.4 Quantitative Research

This research investigates Internet users' online brand and anti-brand community participation behavior via online survey over a five-month period from January to May 2012. An online survey is a research strategy, in which meaningful quantitative information is systematically gathered from a relatively large sample taken from the Internet population (de Leeuw et al., 2008, Wright, 2005).

4.4.1 Sampling

This online survey adopted the method of self-selection and non-probabilistic sampling as the best approach to reach the target online brand and anti-brand community participants. Non-probabilistic sampling was chosen since it was the most effective way to reach out to anonymous participants. As Wright (2005) mentioned, one disadvantage of an online survey is the unknown size of population. However, one can be sure that all the participants of the communities are Internet users.

The target sample is made up of Internet users who are defined as "consumers who visit online brand and anti-brand communities" (Wright, 2005: 11). This research looks at online brand and anti-brand communities on the Internet. The target respondents are web users. So far, there is no identified source of population of online brand and anti-brand communities. All the participants of the online brand and anti-brand communities are believed to be able to have access to the Internet and access to the online brand and online anti-brand communities.

This research studies the online brand and anti-brand communities of the global brands in the world. The list of online brand and anti-brand community is based on a consolidated list of 147 global companies ranked in a) Business Week's 100 Best Global Brands (Kiley, 2010) and Millward Brown's BrandZ Top 100 Most Valuable Global Brands (Optimor, 2010) (Appendix 2).

Google, a search engine, was used to search online brand and anti-brand communities in the Internet. Online brand community links were searched through main search engines (i.e., Google and Yahoo) and social media (i.e., Facebook and Twitter). As for the anti-brand sites, negative terms namely, 'anti', hate', sucks', 'blow' and 'watch' were added to the brand during the search. To follow Kucuk's (2008) research about online brand and anti-brand communities, the first 100 search results were chosen for each brand and anti-brand communities.

4.4.2 Invitation to the Survey

Generally speaking, online brand and anti-brand community participants are from everywhere where there is access to the Internet and an understanding of the media of language used in the communities. Geographical boundaries are basically not a constraint (Wright, 2005).

Google search engine was used to search the online brand and anti-brand community website addresses. However, given that it is easy to create on online communities but difficult to sustain users' visits and participation, for online communities of the global brands, it is believed that the key brand and anti-brand communities would attract a substantial number of fans to join the communities and generate sufficient discussions to keep the members coming back. There are no well-defined criteria about community size and frequency of visit for considering the representativeness of a community.

In view of its easy creation and the huge number of online communities, after two weeks of community search, the researcher decided to shortlist the online brand and anti-brand communities based on the following two criteria:

- 1) with membership above 100 if the membership number was indicated in the community;
- 2) the last discussion indicated in the communities is within the past 12 months (January – December, 2011) if there is timing indicated in the discussion.

A letter was sent to the Chief Executive Officers of the 147 selected global brand companies to invite them to participate in this survey. It turned out that two of them asked for further information about this survey. A Korean car manufacturer and an American software company replied and showed their interest. However, due to timing and workload issue, both of them declined the survey invitation.

Finally none of them helped send out the survey link to their online brand community members in company-operated online brand communities.

Invitations were emailed to the webmasters asking for support to post the survey link to the communities. If posting was allowed, survey links were also posted in the communities to invite members to participate. 147 survey links were created for posting to the respective brand and anti-brand communities (e.g., Apple link for online Apple and anti-Apple communities) of the respective brands.

Although some community platforms (e.g., Facebook group) indicated the total number of members, some of them did not show such information (e.g., online community operated in dedicated website maintained by the brand owner). As a result, it was not possible to estimate the population of total survey communities, which is a drawback of the online survey (Wright, 2005).

4.4.3 Justification for Using Online Survey

Since the focus of the research is about online communities, an online survey was believed to be the most appropriate data collection method for this exploratory study to empirically test the conceptual model (Wilson and Laskey, 2003). An online survey is an environmental friendly, more accurate data entry approach to allow quicker collection of data at the respondents' convenience for completing the questionnaire in a more interactive and interesting interface, as compared to the conventional executions of survey through face-to-face and telephone (de Leeuw et al., 2008, Bruner and Kumar, 2000, Stevenson et al., 2000, Reips, 2002, Stanton, 1998, Yun and Trumbo, 2000). The researcher can also generate a random order of questions in the way that the respondents answer the questions in different sequences to reduce the primacy effect (Malhotra, 2008).

4.4.4 Limitations of Online Survey

Having said this, there is a concern about coverage error for using an online survey by which "people are systematically excluded from the sampling frame or are not given an opportunity to participate in the survey" (Manfreda et al., 2002, p.269). This was not an issue for the present research because the target respondents were all Internet users. An unrestricted self-selected online survey could not avoid the multiple completion of the questionnaire by the same person although the survey software could identify the respondents' Internet Protocol (IP) address together with the personal information provided as a measure for filtering.

To conclude, despite the limitations of a self-administered web-based survey, it was decided for this research to invite online community members who were anonymous and could be found without posting the survey link directly into the virtual communities. It is also considered the most efficient and cost-effective approach to reach out to target respondents.

4.4.5 Pre-testing the Questionnaire

Pre-testing is critical to the successful communication and delivery of intended messages to the target respondents for improving the quality of the data and responses (Summers, 2001). Therefore, six known online brand and anti-brand community members (3 each) were invited to complete the pre-testing survey. They were all at masters or PhD level and members of the targeted online brand and anti-brand communities to test the face validity of the survey instrument.

The wording of the introduction and arrangement of the questions were modified after the pre-test for delivering a more logical flow of the questionnaire.

4.4.6 Pilot Test

Survey links were posted in the WBS Community in my.wbs website of Warwick Business School ([https://my.wbs.ac.uk/\\$/\\$/\\$/event/HomePage](https://my.wbs.ac.uk/$/$/$/event/HomePage)) and the Wolfson Research Exchange room of the Warwick University Library to invite the members of online brand and anti-brand communities to fill out the questionnaire and comment on the questionnaire design.

In total, 52 completed questionnaires were collected for analysis. Exploratory factor analysis was performed, followed by a reliability test. Apart from this, the comments from the respondents were analyzed for questionnaire fine-tuning.

The pilot test results showed that all of the constructs were reliable, and achieved the minimum acceptable cut-off value of 0.7 in Cronbach's Alpha (Nunnally, 2010). Some respondents left comments about the definition of online brand and online anti-brand communities because they joined the communities in form of online social media network (e.g., Facebook group).

4.4.7 Incentives

Incentives were used in this survey to encourage the qualified respondents to increase the response rate and finish the entire questionnaire (Manfreda and Vehovar, 2008). In the invitation link, readers were informed that the research was part of an independent academic PhD research study and not for any commercial purpose. To stimulate the response rate, an incentive of US\$20 Amazon vouchers was given out by way of lottery to 20 valid respondents. IP address and completion time were checked to avoid respondents filling out the questionnaire for prize drawing. No such a case was found in this research.

4.5 Summary

This chapter described the research design, methodology and measurement scales used in this present research. A mixed method research approach was adopted by using qualitative (i.e., focus group discussion and in-depth interview) and quantitative (i.e., web-based cross-sectional survey) research to understand online community participation behavior. After that, quantitative online survey, the details of data collection and analysis were discussed.

Chapter 5: Qualitative Research Data Analysis

5.1 Introduction

The section reports the overall qualitative research findings from the focus group discussions and in-depth interviews with respect to the antecedents and consequences of online community participation, as discussed in Chapter 3. The findings will be used to develop sound hypotheses and a conceptual model.

5.2 Data Collection

A total of two focus group discussions with twelve respondents and twelve in-depth interviews were conducted.

- 1) Focus group discussions (December 2010 & February 2011): Two focus group discussions were conducted in December 2010 and February 2011 to understand online community members' online community participation behaviors and their opinions in some selected contemporary social phenomena.
- 2) In-depth interviews (January to March 2011) with active online community members about their participation in online communities to understand and differentiate between the different motives for joining different types of online communities.
- 3) In-depth interviews (February 2011) with online community founders concerning their own experiences and behaviors of members in online community.
- 4) In-depth interviews (March 2011) with online community moderating managers to understand the individual and group behaviors of online community members

- 5) In-depth interviews (November 2010 & January 2011) with online social media agency directors to understand the strategic insight and development of online communities to organizations.

In essence, this qualitative research was exploratory in nature. The objectives set for the focus group discussion and in-depth interview were used as discussion guide for the interview. Focus group discussions were conducted in a booked room in the social sciences building at the University of Warwick. The in-depth interviews were conducted via an online telecom system called Webex. The discussions were recorded and transcribed and grouped under different topics and categories for analysis.

5.2.1 Interview Protocol Form

An interview protocol form was developed for qualitative research as a semi-structured questionnaire as a clear set of instructions for collection of comparable qualitative data (Ritchie et al., 2013). The protocol form consisted of an introduction to the research for the respondents, interviewee background, and open-ended questions. The protocol form can be found in Appendix 2.

5.3 Profile of the Respondents

Before reporting the results of the focus group discussions and in-depth interviews, this section delineates the profiles of the participants in order to portray a clear overview of their background and make sense of their dialogue. The names shown are anonymous.

Two 90-minute focus group discussions were completed on 11th December, 2010 and 4th February 2011 at the University of Warwick. Except for one member of the IT staff from the social science department, all respondents were full-time students at undergraduate and postgraduate level.

5.3.1 Focus Group Discussion

Among the twelve participants, 5 were male and 7 were females. These members were chosen from the online community member recruitment database of eighty-two completed registrations. They were chosen based on the criteria of gender, experience and time engagement in online communities. Details of the participant profile could be found in Table 5 to 9.

Table 5: Profile of Focus Group Discussion Participants

Name	Occupation	Online Community Experience
Alice	Management First Year undergraduate	5 years
Ben	Business Management and Computer Science First Year Undergraduate	6 years
Cathy	PHD– First Year	6 years
Doris	Economics Masters Student	6 years
Eva	Economics Masters Student in Economic Growth and Agricultural Development	5 years
Frank	IT Staff	4 years
Gloria	Law/Business Studies, Second Year Undergraduate	4 years
Henry	Computer/Business Studies, First Year Undergraduate	4 years
Ivy	PhD Sociology, First Year Postgraduate	6 years
John	International Management, First Year Undergraduate	4 years
Karen	International Management, First Year Undergraduate	3 years
Louis	Accounting and Finance, First Year Undergraduate	2 years

5.3.2 In-depth Interview

Online Community Managers

One male and one female online community manager were interviewed. Details of their profile are as follows:

Table 6: Profile of Online Community Managers for In-depth Interview

Name	Title	Nationality	Experience in Online Community	Experience in Online Community Moderation
Mandy	Community Manager	Canadian	10 years	4 years
Nathan	Community Manager	British	12 years	2 years

Online Community Founders

Two in-depth interviews were completed to understand the development of online communities and online anti- communities (Table 7).

Table 7: Profile of Online Community Founders for In-depth Interview

Name	Nature of Online Community Founded	Nationality	No. of Year Online Community Founded
Oliver	Anti- Media	American	1 year
Peter	Charity	Canadian	2 years

Social Media Agency Directors

The social media management agencies interviewed helped organizations including blue chip companies (e.g., Sony, BBC, Virgin Media, C4, Xbox and Activision), to take care of online communities and profiles by offering moderation, social media monitoring and community management services (Table 8).

Table 8: Profile of Social Media Agency Directors for In-depth Interview

Name	Role in Social Media Agency	Nationality	Working Experience in Social Media Industry
Quincy	Insight Director	British	10 years
Ruth	Public Relations Director	American	12 years

Quincy was in charge of the social media research and managing teams to supply clients with real-time social media analysis and image management. Ruth was in charge of promoting and educating to the clients the importance of social media and how companies could benefit from it.

Online Community Members

Another three male and three female online community members were interviewed. Table 9 is an overview of their profile.

Table 9: Profile of Online Community Members for In-depth Interview

Name	Occupation	Experience of Online Community	Time Spent on Online Community (Per Week)
Sandy	Self-employed	3 years	Less than 3 hours
Tammy	Secretary	2 years	5-10 hours
Vincent	Student	4 years	>10 hours
Winnie	Housewife	3 years	3-5 hours
Xavier	Programmer	3 years	5-10 hours
Yves	Artist	4 years	Less than 3 hours

5.4 Analysis

The process of the qualitative research data analysis is recursive and dynamic (Merriam, 2007). It involves systematically arranging and reviewing the transcripts of interviews so as to build up the researcher's understanding of the phenomena under research (Ritchie et al., 2013). The challenge is "to make sense of massive amounts of data, reduce the volume of information, identify significant patterns, and construct a framework for communicating the essence of what the data reveal" (p.372) (Patton, 1990).

A constant comparative approach was adopted to conduct cross case and within case analysis. Constant comparative method is a procedure for systematic analysis of qualitative data. The researcher needs to review the data and compare incidents back and forth constantly to form groups of themes or information (Creswell, 2009). New data are constantly compared to existing categories of themes or information to allow building up of existing categories and emergence of new categories with thorough examination of emerging theoretical ideas (Corbin and Strauss, 2014). Data was interpreted and analyzed based on the protocol.

Cross-case analysis enables identification of common themes or categories across cases for a better understanding of a phenomenon for enhancement of generalizability of findings. Data are collected from the multiple stakeholders such as users, community founders, moderators, and media agency directors by using focus group discussion and in-depth interview to achieve triangulation by "collecting information from a diverse range of individuals and settings, using a variety of methods" (p.75) (Maxwell, 2012).

Internal validity of the findings is achieved through peer examination, which includes the guidance of my leader thesis supervisor on the development of my findings. A PhD classmate was invited to listen to the recording of the focus group discussions and then review the transcription to ensure the accuracy of the data. I also conducted member checks with in-depth interview participants by “taking data and tentative interpretations back to the people from whom they were derived and asking them if the results are plausible” (Merriam, 2007: 204).

5.5 Results of Qualitative Research

This section reports on the findings of focus group discussions and in-depth interviews were integrated to account for the respondents overall reasons for online brand and anti-brand community participation. Statements were quoted verbatim to keep the full expression of the responses in a described context for delivery of richer meaning to the topics of discussion (Silverman, 2013).

5.5.1 Online Brand Community Participation

Firstly, four dimensions of Internet users’ motive of online community participation are identified from the qualitative research.

5.5.1.1 Motives

a) Pro-social

In line with concepts of social movement and collective action, some Internet users join communities because they may feel deprived, and try to fight for social justice for some unfair social phenomena.

Henry: They also want to be part of something because if it does stop xfactor getting a number one the people in the group could say it has because of us and I was involved. So it makes them feel that they have made an impact in something

Gloria: I think that happens when someone wants to boycott a corporation.

Mandy: I think in some cases it's an extension of the social justice thing, I think a lot of people would for example join an anti Nike page because of their past involvement with sweatshop labor and child labor, whatever you want to say.

Online communities mobilize the "likeminded" people in the world's biggest community (i.e., internet) to express opinions and to support or show dissatisfaction to issues or organizations.

John: When you post things on Facebook where you know people will be online you get the "word out" So when people collaborate together to achieve things, such as using energy saving bulbs to save energy.

Ivy: When people get together to do something for example the student protest, was the demonstration a collective action? Online communities can help because they are very effective in organizing large numbers of people and updating people about things that change... But there was an impact because people were aware that students were unhappy with the situation and it opened up a debate and was the headlines for like three weeks which is very major for all the debates around education.... Like the Egyptian ones, they blocked websites and people could only get information from outside the country using those weird IP addresses so in that sense social media was used to undermine the government and that was collective action.

Louis: Especially on the...erm Facebook when you join a group you get a wall where loads of people are posting so it's not just one person's view...

b) Helping

Like any other healthy offline society, one utopian function of an online community is believed by some respondents to be that it builds up a support system by the stronger ones (e.g., knowledge, power, experience) for the weaker ones (e.g., newcomers).

Nathan: Yeah I do see that a lot, like when you go and ask a question a lot of people help you out, and I guess it's about the kudos they get. I think people will want to help, if you see someone struggling with something you want to help, so it happens a lot.

Sandy: Yeah, and it interests me that there are so many people that people will put so much energy into something that doesn't bring them any income. I find them interesting places to look at, because someone will do something and request help online and other developers will come and help them.

c) Networking

In some communities such as Facebook, some community members just wanted to stay connected to it without high involvement in the group. They might just want to be known to be associated with an organization or issues that reflects their personal status, opinions and tastes. Sometimes they joined communities due to peer influence. For example, when one sees one's friend "Like" (or join) a group, one may also join, for peer recognition.

Mandy: It's just to make a social connection and I guess, in that you make connections with people and you get feedback on your ideas and discussion.

Nathan: With Facebook people tend to like a brand because they are just a fan of the brand, they don't tend to go over there for a reason like getting answers they just see it any like it, ...

Oliver: From the community I really like the connections I have made. ... that's what I enjoy most because I like challenging the status quo.

Ben: I feel like it keeps me better informed of world events.

d) Emotion Venting

A clear group dynamic was also observed in online communities. Based on the sharing of the community managers, members made use of online communities to vent their emotions, especially dissatisfaction within the communities, organizations and social issues.

Mandy: I've seen it quite a few times where people will get quite upset if you suddenly change the format of the forum, that they look different or if you remove functionality.

Nathan: There are big emotions in a community: it tries to make people vent their emotions on people.

Oliver: I think the great thing about the internet is you can post your opinion and people can call you crazy or say they wanted to say that their whole lives.

5.5.1.2 Social Identity

Identity significantly accounts for Internet users' participation in online communities. Online community is considered to be an ideal place for likeminded people to find each other to form in-group to support each other, to express their real self. As such, members form their own rules and rituals in the community to reflect the community identity and exercise peer influence within the group.

a) Place for like-minded people

Compared to the offline community, people can find likeminded people more easily online because there are no geographical and time limitations for people to search for them, as long as they are hooked online. Once they match each other in the online community, it will become commonplace for them to hang out and share with each other.

Karen: Let's just say if they were likeminded people they would probably be passionate about a specific thing and join the group. They probably all think the same.

Peter: I think they want to reaffirm their values. Other people value matching other people's values. They want to find likeminded people who share similar interests who want to stay connected to people and issues that touch and affect them in their daily lives.

b) In-group formation for identity assurance

Each online community serves as a comfort zone for people to form in-group to share their common interests, likings and beliefs with each other. This forms a cohesive power for members to strengthen their beliefs with the support of their fellow members. It may further form a power to fight against beliefs and opinions from those that are different from them.

In some extreme cases, existing members may dominate the community and form too strong a tie among each other, such that they may not wish any new members to join anymore.

Mandy: And all my friends like this brand so I should join this brand... that accounts for more than any other factor in why people do that. I think it is a way to say this is who I am, I like this and that is part of who they are. ... like someone saying "I like Prada", that's telling a lot about yourself isn't it?

Mandy: It's just a good place to meet up with likeminded people or just to have a good debate

Mandy: when new people try to come in they can be really rude, and I've seen this happen on a different forum, quite a few users I'd say between the ages of 15 and 19 who kind of became friends with one another, and really protective, they are dedicated to the forum, and they are on their everyday posting and then new people try to come in they are very rude.

Mandy: Yeah I think it does have to be, and you do have to take the opinions of the community members into account because they are the ones keeping it going, right? I think if managers want to implement large changes they do need to consult to some degree; people do get really upset and it's easy enough for people to move to other forums now.

c) Expression of the real self

In reality, people may not be able to express their real selves for reasons such as their own occupation, social status and issues which may affect their own or others' privacy. An online community serves as sanctuary for some people to release themselves and express their real self, without concern about being identified by people they have to face in daily life.

Doris: Maybe they are afraid to show their real self in real life.

Karen: That's why the internet's good because it's not just the media it's everyone else's point of view.

Nathan: ...you get to be with people who share the same interests as you. Immediately identify with people and be able to talk about any issues, which you just can't talk about in real life. ...you can identify with people who have the same interests as you.

d) Rules and Rituals

Like any tribal society, an online community starts with some core members who are enthusiastic about forming a systematic society where they can settle down well according to agreed ways of living and exercise social law and order. As such, society may be regulated more easily for the purposes of long-term sustainability. When someone tries to impose new regulations, he or she has to be approved by core members. Otherwise, they may stand up to voice out and induce tribe members to fight against the newcomers or the new culture.

Mandy: Instead of just reporting it to the moderators they'll post on it and say: oh you posted this in the wrong forum" or post a snarky image or post something sarcastic. Instead of being nice they'll be mean....

Nathan: It's mostly about the core users, it's them, and I mean someone might do something and they become legendary and it just kind of revolved around those users.

e) Social Norm

Some respondents join an online community as a result of social norm. Joining the online community symbolizes recognition from the peers. This also helps peers to access sources where they are able to meet with like-minded people to share common interests.

Mandy: I guess in some ways they are joining because their friends join; it may be that they discussed that brand or that page outside of the Internet.

5.5.2 Online Anti-Brand Community Participation

To begin with, although online anti-brand community shares many commonalities with online community, according to the focus group discussions and in-depth interviews, many unique attitudes and behavior in online anti-brand community may be identified.

For example, online anti-brand communities provide an outlet for like-minded people to fight for social movement against the mainstream thinking and culture with strong characteristics of social justice, evangelism, and sometimes even activist thinking. Contrary to online brand community, an online anti-brand community usually focuses on issues against an organization, an associated issue or policy.

a) Expression of frustration to organization and/or disapproval of issue

Online anti-brand communities provide a platform for people to complain about unfair or unhappy treatment by an organization and also their strong disagreement with some policies or irresponsible acts that they bring about.

Ada: Maybe to show your disapproval for something.

Ivy: There was an anti- one because of the shell oil spill. I joined but I have to say I never really went on it but I was a member of it.

However, the hosts of the anti-brand community need to take extra caution to prevent them from being abused by extremists.

Ben: I think there will always be a few people who misuse these movements for the sake of violence

Ada: There will always be people who just want to be angry at the world and ruin it for others

b) Updates and feedback

For members who intend to support a movement or long-lasting event to voice their dissatisfaction, they would like to receive updates to their response when appropriate.

Ben: I'm a member of avaaz.org and they do a lot of protesting for human rights, every week I will get an email and they will have petitions to sign... and I can help make a change by adding numbers to the petition lists.

c) To express subjective hatred to an organization or issue

Unlike complaining behavior, some Internet users make use of anti-brand community to vent their anger against an organization or their dissatisfaction with some social phenomena.

Doris: Yes I think a lot of people have tried to complain directly to the company and have been let down by a poor or no response, and so have used online brand communities to express their anger.

Sandy: So there a quite a lot of places where you can vent your rage at telephonica so I guess they are anti-brand.

d) Sharing of feelings with members

When the Internet users encounter negative experience with an organization, they tend to resort to sharing such experiences with others who suffer the same for emotional support to vent their anger or frustration.

Ada: Well maybe I had a really bad experience with McDonald's I would join and see what other people have to say

Mandy: they've had a bad experience and want to get it off their chests.

Sandy: Because I was trying to find out if people had had the same problem as I had had with them and when I saw people posting I started by reading what people had posted and then I discovered other people are having the same problem I kind of joined the community because I wanted to communicate with one guy in particular; because I thought the problem he got was the one I was experiencing.

Peter: the anti sites might express more of an episodic engagement in the issue

However, some people join them just for amusement, and do not take the anti-brand issues seriously.

Ada: I would join the McDonald page myself for a laugh; it is clearly based on humor.

Henry & Karen: I think it's mainly for a laugh.

Frank: Some of the groups are really funny actually because they make fun of something and they really put effort into it to make the joke.

Louis: When you click on the link you read the page you like it and normally you never really return to the page.

Karen: I wouldn't really think about McDonalds as really anti-brand communities, it's just for a laugh most of the time unless someone generally hates McDonalds.

Mandy: I can see that happening and them doing it for a joke, but I can't see any adult doing it, that's kind of dazzling.

Organizations so far still do not pay sufficient attention to online anti-brand communities or hate sites. One social media agency director agreed that they could serve both constructive and destructive purposes. More efforts should be paid to understanding people's behavior and reason for joining online anti-brand communities so that organizations can take further actions to make use of the feedback from them to generate useful information and ideas.

5.5.3 Online Community Participation Behavior for Long-term Sustainability

Based on the experience sharing with the community managers and directors of social media agencies, the following is a summary of participation behavior that contributes to the long-term sustainability of online brand communities.

5.5.3.1 Committed Members with High Moral Values for Knowledge Sharing and Moderation

Community size is not a key factor for a successful online community. The type of member and their level of engagement are the most important. A sustainable online community requires committed members to provide information to co-create content, rules and regulations, offer support to the new members to adapt to the community culture, etc. The interviewees believe that members with high moral value serve as pillars in the community to maintain the "prosperity" and smooth operation.

Some organizations also observe the need to use moderators to regulate online community. Some have started to hire online public relations agencies to moderate online community.

5.5.3.2 Freedom and Independence

Internet users join online communities mainly to collect the information they need, express their opinions and find someone to share in a natural setting. Sometimes members quit the organization-sponsored community because the organization imposes control on it against alternative or negative thinking. Therefore, the host of online community should try its best to maintain the neutrality of the community and let it run with minimal control.

In terms of hardware design, users prefer to join a community where they can voice and share their thoughts in a user-friendly platform. For example, people use the “like” function in Facebook group to express their support for an organization or issue.

5.5.3.3 Distinguished Community Culture

Members are more committed if they find that the culture of the community fits with their values. They enjoy their experience more if they can find someone that shares greater similarities with them in terms of opinions, behavior and attitudes, etc. Online communities without a clear culture co-created by members may not attract hard-core members to support their continuation.

In summary, the above findings have illustrated the key success factors for long-term sustainability of an online community. These include the active contribution and sharing of useful information and knowledge from members with high moral value, a willingness of members to moderate and to regulate the communities, encourage active contribution and interaction among members and support members.

A free and independent online community with its own unique culture would also attract like-minded people to join and contribute to the community.

5.6 Summary

This chapter reports the findings of the exploratory qualitative research for the development of knowledge about the unique participation behavior in the online and anti-community, particularly the understanding of the importance of motives and social identity to the users' participation, and the key success factors of the long-term sustainability of online communities.

Four motives of online community participation, namely helping, pro-social, emotion venting and networking were identified. The findings serve as supportive arguments for hypotheses setting for the quantitative research.

Chapter 6: A Model of Online (Anti-)Brand Community Participation

6.1 Introduction

Based on the literature review and findings of the qualitative research, an extended model of goal-directed behavior for antecedents and consequences of online brand and anti-brand community participation is proposed. The hypotheses and measurement scales for the conceptual model are discussed.

6.2 Theoretical Framework

According to some previous qualitative research, online anti-brand community members may have different reasons and objectives for joining the community (Hollenbeck, 2005, Hollenbeck and Zinkhan, 2006, Krishnamurthy and Kucuk, 2009, Kucuk, 2008b, Kozinets and Handelman, 2004). They have provided an overview to suggest that the Internet users have different reasons and objectives of joining online community. The qualitative research has also identified some antecedents and consequences of online brand and anti-brand community participation.

The conceptual model of this research is fundamentally built upon the Model of Goal-directed Behavior, which evolved from the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991, Bagozzi and Dholakia, 2006). Bagozzi and Dholakia's (2006) research attempted to understand the Internet users' attitude, intention and behavior in small group online brand communities (Figure 7). In this research, constructs of social identity, emotion, and desire from this model were selected for the conceptual model development.

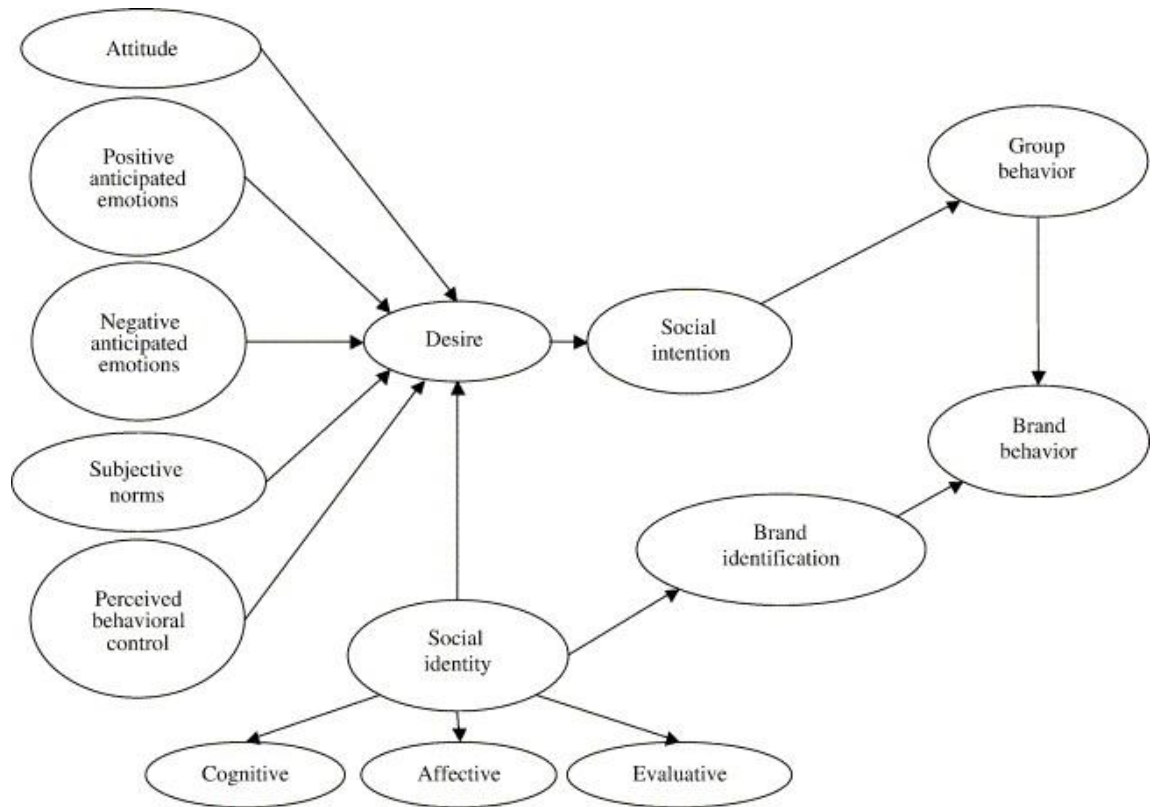


Figure 7: Model of Goal-directed Behavior

Source: Bagozzi and Dholakia, 2006

Construct of motives developed in the qualitative study was chosen as *desire* in the model. Based on an extensive literature review of offline and online community participation behavior, moral identification, brand identification and brand disidentification were grouped under the *social identity* category.

Positive and negative brand emotions were proposed as the *positive and negative anticipated emotions* in the conceptual model as antecedents of online brand and anti-brand community participation. The concept of community citizenship behavior (CCB) is used to measure the *group behavior* of community participation (Figure 8).

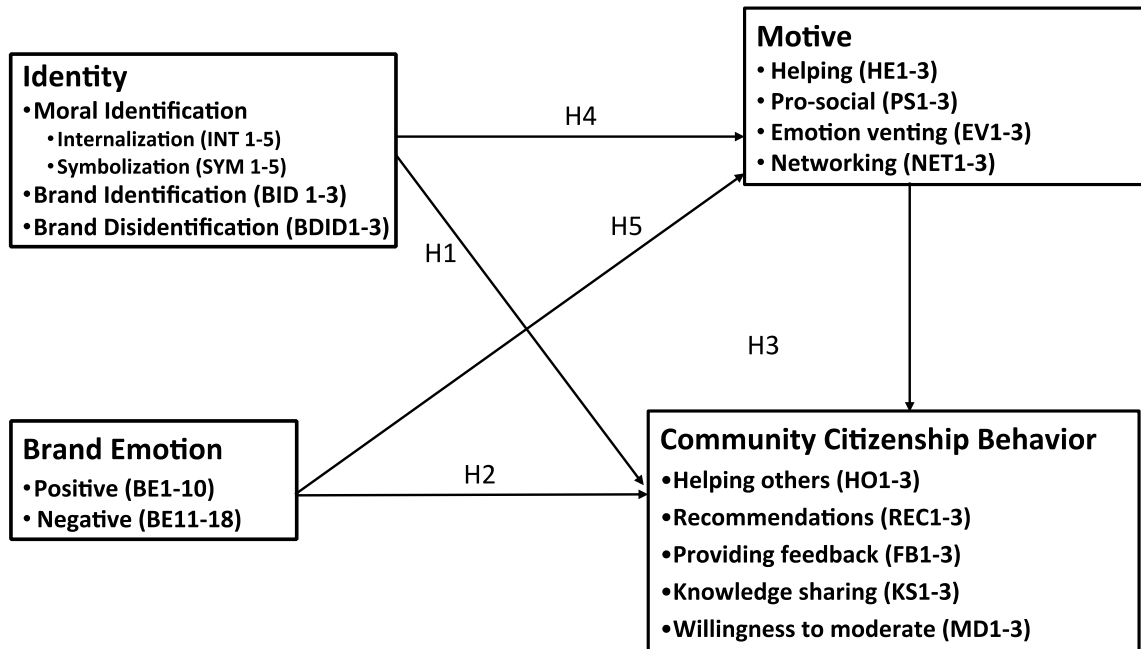


Figure 8: Conceptual Model of Antecedents and Consequences of Online (Anti-)Brand Community Participation

This research serves a dual purpose to understand why people participate in online brand and anti-brand communities. Thus far the understanding of online anti-brand community is still in its infancy stage. It is fair to say that the comparison of the results of the model for online brand community versus the anti-brand community will provide useful insights into Internet users' behavior and motivation in online brand and anti-brand community participation (Chan et al., 2014).

6.3 Conceptualization and Hypotheses

The above-mentioned conceptual model (Figure 8) is divided into two sections. They are:

- 1) The antecedents of online (anti-)brand community participation and the consequences
- 2) The factors affecting motives of online (anti-)brand community participation

A total of six constructs are incorporated into this model. These are: moral identification, brand identification, brand dis-identification, brand emotion, motives and community citizenship behavior.

6.4 Antecedents of Online (Anti-)Brand Community Participation

Five factors are proposed as the antecedents of online community participation. These are moral identification, brand identification, brand dis-identification, brand emotion and motives. This section discusses the hypotheses of the constructs to community citizenship behavior.

6.4.1 Identity and Community Citizenship Behavior

6.4.1.1 Moral Identification & Community Citizenship Behavior

Identification refers to the level of perception by which brand community members share the same defining attributes with the community (Ahearne et al., 2005). The members' identification and attachment to the community are enhanced when they participate more actively in the group activities and interact more with the members and community (Algesheimer et al., 2005b, Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003).

Moral identification in the research is defined as a “mental representation that a consumer may hold about his or her moral character” (p.180) (Reed II et al., 2007). In the contemporary consumer research about altruistic consumer behavior, there has been evidence found regarding the links between moral identification and voluntary community behavior such as donation and pro-social motives in social topic online community participation (Shao et al. 2008).

A person’s moral identification is made up of two dimensions, these being private and public moral self-schema (Aquino and Reed, 2002). The private dimension is called internalization, which focuses on an individual’s “degree to which the moral traits are central to the self-concept” (p.515). The public dimension of moral dimension is called symbolization, which explains the level of moral self-schema projected outwardly through his or her explicit actions (Shao et al. 2008).

For community citizenship behavior, it is considered as community member-direct extra-role behavior. In Yi et al.’s (2011) concept of community citizenship behavior, it is defined as the voluntary or non-explicit behavior that benefits and goes beyond community members’ role expectations to influence positively and effective functioning of an online brand community. For the purpose of this research, community citizenship behavior is defined as the voluntary and discretionary behavior that directly promotes the effective functioning of a community in the online community context. The outcome factors of community participation are categorized into a collective concept called community citizenship behavior.

In addition to the dimensions of (1) helping others, (2) recommendation and (3) feedback from Groth's (2005) research about customer voluntary citizenship behavior, another two detrimental online extra-role behavior: 4) knowledge sharing and 5) willingness to moderate were added to become the concept of community citizenship behavior.

Moral responsibility is one of the three key characteristics of brand community. Community members have "a felt sense of duty or obligation to the brand community as a whole, and to its individual members" (Muniz and O'Guinn 2001). As a good citizen of a community, they are believed to have good moral integrity and recognition to the community (Kim et al., 2012). It is believed that members with high moral identification in internalization and symbolisation to the online brand community are more likely to have higher level of voluntary community citizenship behavior to become a good solidier of an organization (Organ, 1988). Voluntary commitment to non-profit making organization is a result of a drive to internationalization and symbolization (Kim et al., 2012). The qualitative research findings have revealed that members are assuming a moral and voluntary role to maintain the sustainability of the community and make the voice of the like-minded people be heard in online anti-brand community.

H1a1: Internalization is positively related to community citizenship behavior in online brand community.

H1b1: Symbolization is positively related to community citizenship behavior in online brand community.

H1a2: Internalization is positively related to community citizenship behavior in online anti-brand community.

H1b2: Symbolization is positively related to community citizenship behavior in online anti-brand community.

6.4.1.2 Brand Identification & Community Citizenship Behavior

Brand community is set up for fans of a brand to gather together for the 'we-ness' and 'consciousness of kind' with the like-minded people (Bender, 1982, Kim et al., 2012, Muniz and O'Guinn, 2001, Szmigin and Reppel, 2004). In online brand communities, members can share the same tastes and preferences about the brand in order to support each other with knowledge sharing in relation to the brand. As a result, members form a close bond amongst each other (McWilliam, 2012).

Previous research has found that people's identification with a brand community has a positive effect on both customers' in-role behavior, namely willingness to pay, loyalty (Ahearne et al., 2005, Homburg et al., 2009) as well as extra-role behavior, such as helping the in-group members and knowledge sharing (Wiertz and de Ruyter, 2007).

In this survey, brand identity is defined as people's perceived identity from enduring and distinctive characteristics of the brand, namely satisfaction with the brand and the reputation of the brand (Kuenzel and Halliday, 2008).

On the contrary, as a result of consumerism and collective action, many online anti-brand communities are set up mainly to discourage adoption of a brand and reveal the negative practice of the brand and brand owner (Krishnamurthy and Kucuk, 2009). People with strong identity to a brand are less likely to join an anti-brand community for that brand. Therefore, it is believed that brand identification will have negative association with community citizenship behavior in online anti-brand community participation.

H1c1: Brand identification is positively related to community citizenship behavior in online brand community.

H1c2: Brand identification is negatively related to community citizenship behavior in online anti-brand community

6.4.1.3 Brand Disidentification & Community Citizenship Behavior

Bhattacharya and Elsbach's (2002) interpretation of brand dis-identification is adopted in this research to refer to "a self-perception based on (1) a cognitive separation between a person's identity and his or her perception of the identity of an organization and (2) a negative relational categorization of the self and the organization" (p. 28).

According to the above definition, people with strong dis-identification to a certain brand will try to dis-associate themselves from the brand to demonstrate its independence from it. As such, people with high brand dis-identification to a brand would not contribute to the extra-role behavior in the online brand community, or may behave negatively to the extra-role in the community.

H1d1: Brand dis-identification is negatively related to community citizenship behavior in online brand community.

Past research in the management field has illustrated the fact that people with high dis-identification to an organization would criticize the organization publicly and contests the organization individually (Elsbach and Bhattacharya, 2001, Jreiner and Ashforth, 2004). To apply this logic to the online anti-brand community, participants with high brand dis-identification would contribute positively to CCB, such as through the co-creation of negative feedback and word-of-mouth to the online anti-brand community.

H1d2: Brand dis-identification is positively related to community citizenship behavior in online anti-brand community

6.4.2 Brand Emotion and Community Citizenship Behavior

Borrowing James' (1884) definition of emotion, brand emotion is defined as a complex state of feeling to a brand and its related activities as a result of psychological and physical changes that affect thought and behavior. Concluding his thirty years of research into the emotions of facial expression, psychologist, Paul Ekman (1999) has identified two consistent dimensions of emotion across different cultures. They are positive emotions (e.g., happiness, amusement, contentment and satisfaction) and negative emotions (e.g., anger, disgust, sadness and shame).

Thomson et al.'s (2005) research shows evidence that a stronger emotion relates to an object that connects to stronger feelings and leads to different behavior. In terms of the emotions toward a brand, consumers' emotion to a brand could predict long-term relationships between brands and customers such as willingness to buy at a premium price (Fournier, 1998b). Young et al.'s (2011) research about online community members' emotional attachment demonstrates positive relationship with online citizenship behavior. It is proposed that online brand community members' positive brand emotion has a positive impact on community citizenship behavior. On the contrary, negative brand emotion would stir up negative attitude to the brand and activities connecting to the brand. As a result, it is hypothesized that there is a negative relationship between negative brand emotion and community citizenship behavior.

H2a1: Positive brand emotion is positively related to community citizenship behavior in online brand community.

H2b1: Negative brand emotion is negatively related to community citizenship behavior in online brand community.

Based on the findings of the qualitative research, supporters of a certain brand may join an online anti-brand community purely because they follow other friends to join for fun or to behave cool. Another reason is to express their dissatisfaction to the like-minded people with a hope that their voices would be heard. In other words, they join online anti-brand community due to peer influence and to communicate expectation to brand owners. Put simply, 'lurker' behavior is exercised without commitment to online anti-brand community (Bishop, 2009).

People join anti-brand communities to respond to boycott a brand and to demonstrate their disapproval of brand owners' business practice, business activities and etc. as a result of consumer activism and complaining behavior (Bailey, 2004, Hollenbeck and Zinkhan, 2010).

In other words, such participants have already had negative emotions toward the brand. In order to mobilize and convince more people to join the anti-brand movement, it is believed that members with high level of negative emotion will be more committed to contribute their time and effort voluntarily in the anti-brand community such as providing feedback and sharing knowledge with members. As such, stakeholder with negative emotions toward the brand will have a positive impact on community citizenship behavior in online anti-brand community such as the co-creation of knowledge and feedback (Vallaster and von Wallpach, 2013).

H2a2: Positive brand emotion is positively related to community citizenship behavior in online anti-brand community.

H2b2: Negative brand emotion is positively related to community citizenship behavior in online anti-brand community.

6.4.3 Motives and Community Citizenship Behavior

Qualitative research results reveal that the level of Internet users' participation in online communities is affected by few functional and emotional experiences during participation. Such experiences are believed to drive the corresponding motives of online community participation. They are a) Helping, b) Pro-social, c) Emotion Venting and d) Networking motives.

Helping Motive & Community Citizenship Behavior

In this research, the helping motive is defined as the level of compassion and reciprocity for the online community members which the drive is based upon personal need and satisfaction of the helper (Spitzmuller and Van Dyne, 2012). In essence, altruism, a closely related construct to the helping motive consists the concept of organization citizenship behavior. It is assumed that the altruistic intention of the members of an organization would drive members to contribute to voluntary behavior for the good of the members and the organization (Organ, 1988).

Like any traditional offline communities, members in the online communities are willing to help those in need within the in-group. The motive of helping is, therefore, considered as a concern for online brand and anti-brand community members' welfare in order to obtain satisfaction and enjoyment from such an altruistic intention (Brown et al., 2011). The helping motive has led to some dimensions of online community citizenship behavior for helping, providing feedback and recommendation, knowledge sharing and moderation (Groth, 2005, Lin, 2007).

As mentioned before, unlike supporters of the brands who want to share with each other their experience with the brand, online anti-brand community members join to form a collective action to fight against issues not only related to the brand (e.g., use of child labor), but also social topics relating to the industry (e.g., social injustice, discrimination). Therefore it is believed that the motive of help will have different levels of impact on community citizenship behavior.

H3a1: Helping motive is positively related to community citizenship behavior in online brand community.

H3a2: Helping motive is positively related to community citizenship behavior in online anti-brand community.

Pro-social Motive & Community Citizenship Behavior

In the online community context, pro-social motive is defined here as the level of empathy and sense of responsibility that individuals intend to support the in-group members of the online community. In other research, organization citizenship behavior encompasses the concept of perceived fairness, organizational commitment, leader supportiveness, of which some of the constitutes such as perceived fairness are related to the pro-social behavior (Organ and Ryan, 1995)

Kozinets' (2002) research also shows that communities play an important role in providing a commonplace for people with common concerns or interests to keep up with a certain social development. Prior research has indicated that pro-social behavior is likely to bring about online citizenship behavior, namely knowledge sharing and providing feedback (Eastin and LaRose, 2005, Huang et al., 2009, Rioux and Penner, 2001).

In this research, pro-social motive, a closely related concept of pro-social behavior is considered positively related to members' contribution to the sustainability of the online brand community in terms of community citizenship behavior.

H3b1: Pro-social motive is positively related to community citizenship behavior in online brand community.

As mentioned, pro-social value appears to associate with the organization citizenship behavior (e.g. perceived fairness), which is more relevant to the controversial topic (e.g., social responsibility) discussed in the online forum.

Based on insights from focus group discussions and in-depth interviews of the qualitative study, some respondents join an online anti-brand community to respond to collective action as a result of a need to understand the development of key concerns of the brand community as a responsible online citizen and supporter of the brand (Brunsting and Postmes, 2002).

H3b2: Pro-social motive is positively related to community citizenship behavior in online anti-brand community.

Emotion Venting Motive & Community Citizenship Behavior

The motive of emotion venting is defined as the deposition of cathartic expression of feelings and an unburdening to others to reduce uncertainty by resorting to channels for emotional and practical support (Dewe and Guest, 1990).

The findings from the community experience research consistently show that people join online communities to seek emotional release (e.g., expression of bad experience) through the posting of message and sharing of experience with the online community members in the forum (Tuzovic, 2010, Wiertz and de Ruyter, 2007).

As a result of expecting stronger support to the online community members, members with a stronger motive for emotion venting in return would expect to provide support to the in-group members, which community citizenship behavior is considered the most common support that the online communities and members need to maintain the sustainability and frequent visit of the community (Joe and Lin, 2008).

Members share their anger and frustration with like-minded Internet users in online brand and anti-brand communities because they wish to provide each other with emotional and practical support regarding a certain issue about the brand or the firm. As such, people with strong motive of emotion venting would tend to positively carry out community citizenship behavior such as providing feedback, recommendation and sharing knowledge.

Qualitative research results have found that online anti-brand communities serve as a media to provide a 24/7 platform for the members to vent their emotions in the community. There has been an indication that there is a dark side of online media that provides a venue to allow multiple stakeholders to vent their negative emotion regarding brands and organizations as a result of the negative experience and reaction to the malpractice of the organizations, which trigger community citizenship behavior such as the co-creation of knowledge and feedback content (Vallaster and von Wallpach, 2013).

H3c1: Emotion venting motive is positively related to community citizenship behavior in online brand community.

H3c2: Emotion venting motive is positively related to community citizenship behavior in online anti-brand community.

Networking Motive & Community Citizenship Behavior

The motivation of networking refers to the intention of establishing and maintaining a contract with others for needs of social support, friendship and intimacy (Dholakia et al. 2004). By participating in online community, a person can socialize not only with family, friends, colleagues, and acquaintances, but also the link-minded people to share their common interests and topics in life (Nambisan and Baron, 2007).

Past research has evidenced that the motivation of networking with people is directly and positively correlated with citizenship behavior when an individual believes that citizenship behavior could facilitate the achievement of good image and the need to do something to fill the gap between one's perceived good citizen image and the current image others hold of him/her (Bolino, 1999, Grant and Mayer, 2009).

The findings of a few online social networking studies have revealed that Internet users join social networking media, create their own strategic profiles and selected behavior for status enhancement and recognition seeking through networking with others (Fang and Neufeld, 2009, Rosenberg and Egbert, 2011, Schlenker and Pontari, 2000).

Naturally, members with a strong motive to network are believed to be more eager to build up friendship and close tie with others. It is not surprising that they are willing to practice the dimensions of community citizenship behavior (feedback, recommendation, helping others, knowledge sharing, willing to moderate), which are associated with networking in both online brand and anti-brand community.

H3d1: Networking motive is positively related to community citizenship behavior in online brand community.

H3d2: Networking motive is positively related to community citizenship behavior in online anti-brand community.

6.5 Antecedents of Online (Anti-)Brand Community Participation and Motives

Apart from the impact on community citizenship behavior, the constructs of social identity and brand emotion are believed to trigger and create direct effect on motives of online community participation (Kim et al., 2011, Stets and Burke, 2000).

6.5.1 Identity and Motives

6.5.1.1 Moral Identification and Motives

Moral identity serves to regulate a person's judgment on importance of moral character to a person's self-concept (Reed II et al., 2007). In other words, it serves as a road sign or directory to signal a person's intuitive intention or preference to external stimulus to reflect the private (i.e., internalization) and public (i.e., symbolization) dimensions of moral representation. As such, psychologically, it may play a guiding role to help one to trigger different motives of performing certain behavior to reflect their desired level of moral identity in real life.

Once again, one important factor constituting the success of online community is moral responsibility. In other words, people with high moral identity will tend to exercise their moral responsibility and fuel the motives of online community participation (Muniz and O'Guinn, 2001). Therefore, it is assumed in the research that internalization and symbolization could bring a positive impact to the motives of online brand community participation.

Moral Identification & Helping Motive

In essence, the behavior of helping is considered a moral behavior or a quality of moral quality in a person. From the implicit perspective of moral identify, a person with high value of internalization would have a higher helping motive in the online brand community to maintain high moral atmosphere and to respond to others' needs in the online community according to one's self-concept of morality (Reed II et. al, 2002). The self-concept of morality in helping is also identified in the qualitative study.

"Nathan: Yeah I do see that a lot like when you go and ask a question a lot of people help you out, and I guess it's about the kudos they get. I think people will want to help, if you see someone struggling with something you want to help so it happens a lot"

H4a1: Internalization is positively related to Helping motive in online brand community.

As mentioned, many people join anti-brand communities to fight against social injustice and hegemony (Kozinets and Handelman, 2004). It is expected that the members in online anti-brand community will mobilize the collective effort to help each other emotionally and functionally to achieve the goals. The private dimension of moral identity will drive them to offer help to regulate the community and support the new members to adapt to the environment (Algesheimer et al., 2005a).

H4a2: Internalization is positively related to Helping motive in online anti-brand community.

From the explicit perspective of moral identity, people help members in the online community to achieve satisfaction and recognition from the members (Shao et al., 2008). The self-expressive and explicit dimension of symbolization in moral identity is supposed to have positive impact on both online brand and anti-brand community (Wallace et al., 2012). This is also supported by the findings from the qualitative research.

“Doris: I think that’s a very interesting point, I think it’s a way for them to feel important in a sense because it is a way for them to feel like experts, to gain the appreciation of the group “ (p.28).

H4b1: Symbolization is positively related to Helping motive in online brand community.

H4b2: Symbolization is positively related to Helping motive in online anti-brand community.

Moral Identification & Pro-social Motive

Apart from the development of altruistic helping motives and behavior, moral cognition and emotion have found to be a factor favouring the development of pro-social behavior (Carlo et al., 2010). Web 2.0 technology has enabled the profound development of social media in terms of the co-creation of content by the viewers. Online communities including online brand and anti-brand communities have evolved to be an indispensable media for people with high value of internalization to exercise their pro-social motive into practice to fight for social righteousness. Similar insight is also inferred from the following responses from the qualitative study.

“Ivy: When people get together to do something for example the student protest, was the demonstration a collective action? Online communities can help because they are very effective in organizing large numbers of people and updating people about things that change... But there was an impact because people were aware that students were unhappy with the situation and it opened up a debate and was the headlines for like three weeks, which is very major for all the debates around education.... Like the Egyptian ones; they blocked websites and people could only get information from outside the country using those weird IP addresses so in that sense social media was used to undermine the government and that was collective action.”

As Gamson (1992: 56) has stated, “Participation in social movement frequently involves an enlargement of personal identity for participations and offers fulfilment and realization of self”. Anti-brand community form a venue for social movement. The inner self of a person’s morality is believed to steer to pro-social attitude and behavior in a community and to prevent anti-social activities (McFerran et al., 2010). As such, it is proposed that internalization has a positive impact on pro-social motive in online brand and anti-brand community.

From the symbolization aspect of moral identification, the qualitative study has indicated that online brand and anti-brand communities provide a platform for them to share and identify with the like-minded people.

It is also believed that online brand and online anti-brand communities provide the right platform for the multiple stakeholders to express their socially responsible attitude to the like-minded people (Carroll and Buchholtz, 2014). As such, symbolization is assumed to trigger pro-social motive within the online brand and anti-brand community.

H4c1: Internalization is positively related to Pro-social motive in online brand community.

H4c2: Internalization is positively related to Pro-social motive in online anti-brand community.

H4d1: Symbolization is positively related to Pro-social motive in online brand community.

H4d2: Symbolization is positively related to Pro-social motive in online anti-brand community.

Moral Identification & Emotion Venting Motive

Fundamentally, one's moral traits regulate the willpower, integrity and moral desire of a person (Shao et al., 2008). In the online community, members take up the moral obligation to regulate healthy operation and to respond to the self-expression of their morality (Kim et al., 2012).

Therefore online brand and anti-brand community members with high value of moral identity are supposed to vent their emotion and endeavour the appropriate communication of emotional discussion in the community. It is reasonable to assume that internalization and symbolization serve a positive direct impact on emotion venting motive.

Nathan: Well yeah I mean it's not really communities, in the way it's worked in twitter or the way it's worked in Egypt or some of the other Middle Eastern countries which are just people having a voice and it can be quite powerful. Social media in general is definitely a way of getting your voice out there."

The expressive dimension of moral identification projects outwardly through explicit action to express a person's value to the world. Therefore, it is assumed that symbolization has a positive impact on a person's emotion venting motive in online brand and anti-brand community.

H4e1: Internalization is positively related to Emotion Venting motive in online brand community.

H4e2: Internalization is positively related to Emotion Venting motive in online anti-brand community.

H4f1: Symbolization is positively related to Emotion Venting motive in online brand community.

H4f2: Symbolization is positively related to Emotion Venting motive in online anti-brand community.

Moral Identification & Networking Motive

In qualitative research, it is found that the internalization dimension of moral identity in fact has a negative impact on the networking motive. If Internet users are driven by the inner moral self-schema, they will do it for the sake of moral virtue instead of self-benefit such as networking (Reynolds and Ceranic, 2007).

However, the results of the qualitative research demonstrated that symbolization, the outward element of moral identification has formed a significant and positive impact on networking motive in response to the multiple stakeholders' intended projection to a moral community and identification with the like-minded people through socialization (Saxton and Waters, 2014).

H4g1: Internalization is negatively related to Networking motive in online brand community.

H4g2: Internalization is negatively related to Networking motive in online anti-brand community.

H4h1: Symbolization is positively related to Networking motive in online brand community.

H4h2: Symbolization is positively related to Networking motive in online anti-brand community.

6.5.1.2 Brand Identification and Motives

Like moral identification, brand identification reflects a person's self-concept of the enduring and distinctive characteristics of a brand (Kuenzel and Halliday, 2008). In an online brand community, one of the members' key purposes to join is to identify with like-minded people to share with them their opinions about the brand. Naturally, the higher the level of brand identity of a person to a brand community, the more likely the person will have the motives to participate.

On the contrary, people with strong identification to a brand may be reluctant to participate in anti-brand community, whereby the members have opposite opinions to the brand that they want to be associate with. According to the findings of focus-group discussion and in-depth interviews, people with strong brand identity join anti-brand community because they wish to express their dis-satisfaction to the brand for serious improvements (i.e., pro-social motive) or to follow the peer to join for peer recognition and fun purpose (e.g., support seeking). As such, it is believed that brand identification will create a positive impact on the motives of online anti-brand community participation.

Brand Identification & Helping Motive

Based on the setup (e.g., rituals and traditions) of online brand community, the members form a closely knitted in-group to support each other by helping the stakeholders (e.g., members, brand owner, newcomers) out with topics related to the brand and the brand owner to get the best out of the community from the emotional and functional perspectives (Dholakia and Algesheimer, 2009; McAlexander et al., 2002; Muniz and O'Guinn 2001).

H4i1: Brand identification is positively related to Helping motive in online brand community.

Likewise, people with a high level of brand identification could join online anti-brand community, for example, when they are frustrated about the brand with unanswered or dissatisfied help or resolution about complaint of products and services, they may resort help from the online anti-brand community for emotional support, physical actions and joining force to make the brand owner listen to their voice under open publicity.

Therefore, people with a high level of identification to the brand would induce a positive motive to help the like-minded people in the online anti-brand community to help the members to seek for the feeling of 'we-ness' and 'conscious of kind' (Szmigin and Reppel, 2004).

H4i2: Brand identification is positively related to Helping motive in online anti-brand community.

Brand Identification & Pro-social Motive

Previous research has demonstrated that identity has demonstrated positive relationship with extra-role behavior including pro-social behavior (Aquino et al., 2011, Lam et al., 2013). As such, in an online brand community, it is hypothesized that brand identification has a positive impact on the pro-social motive.

Similar to the impact of brand identification on helping motive, Internet users with strong brand identification tend to have positive association with pro-social motive to establish relationship with the internal and external stakeholders (Burmman, 2010).

For Internet users who would like to share a continuous identity and anger about injustice in the anti-brand community, brand identification is supposed to play a positive role in pro-social motive in regulation of the community (Bimber et al., 2005, Eaton, 2010).

H4j1: Brand identification is positively related to Pro-social motive in online brand community.

H4j2: Brand identification is positively related to Pro-social motive in online anti-brand community.

Brand Identification & Emotion Venting Motive

Community serves as a venue for achieving emotional benefits such as emotion venting (Bender, 1982b, Dholakia and Bagozzi, 2004). The new concept of “fast activism” through the one-click e-petition in the online brand community will allow the participation to network with each other in discussion and express their impulsive attitude to the brand owner (Eaton, 2010).

Such an emotion venting motive is more so in the online anti-brand community where people detach themselves from a particular brand to advocate their negative emotion with other like-minded people (Bailey, 2004, Krishnamurthy and Kucuk, 2009). Such consumer tribes express their anti-brand opinions against the corporations' abusive, unethical and irresponsible acts (Kozinets et al., 2008).

H4k1: Brand identification is positively related to Emotion venting motive in online brand community.

H4k2: Brand identification is positively related to Emotion venting motive in online anti-brand community.

Brand Identification & Networking Motive

Essentially, community is a "network of social relationships marked by mutual and emotional bonds" (p.15) (Bender, 1982) and is a network of "interpersonal ties that provide sociability, support, information, a sense of belonging, and social identity" (p.177) (Wellman, 2001).

It is believed that people who identify themselves with a certain brand wish to connect with each other in the brand community.

H4l1: Brand identification is positively related to Networking motive in online brand community.

Brand community is set up for like-minded people with a strong moral responsibility to gather together to share and interact (Muniz and O'Guinn, 2001). People with high level of brand identity would join online anti-brand community to express their expectation to the brand owner for change for the goodness of the brand, which is different from the brand activists.

As mentioned by the respondents of the qualitative study, participants also wish to network with people having the same purpose of joining the online anti-brand community.

H4I2: Brand identification is positively related to Networking motive in online anti-brand community.

6.5.1.3 Brand Disidentification and Motives

Logically, if one does not like a brand, or is even against a brand, he or she will not participate in online brand community activities. For those who participate in the brand community, they should have strong motive behind to drive them to participate for specific reasons such as expressing their dissatisfaction to the brand and its activities. Therefore, it is hypothesized that people with strong brand dis-identification will trigger a strong motivation to participate in an online brand community.

Alternatively, for Internet users who wish to dis-associate themselves from the brand and its activities, they join online brand activities to address the mistakes and wrongdoing of the brand for purposes such as pro-social and emotion venting. In other words, brand dis-identification creates a positive impact on the motives to join an online anti-brand community.

Brand Disidentification & Helping Motive

An online brand community is set up for the in-group members of the brand supporters. People with high level of brand disidentification are supposed to reject certain competing brands, and will join anti-brand activities against them (Madupu, 2006). Therefore, when one with high level of brand disidentification joins an online brand community as an 'out-group' users to the brand, it is likely to see a negative motive in helping the in-group users in the brand community.

On the contrary, it is believed that a positive relationship will exist between brand disidentification and helping in online anti-brand community for supporting the link-minded in-group members who share the same value of opposing a certain brands

H4m1: Brand disidentification is negatively related to Helping motive in online brand community.

H4m2: Brand disidentification is positively related to Helping motive in online anti-brand community.

Brand Disidentification & Pro-social Motive

As a result of new social movement, some Internet users who wish to dissociate themselves from a brand participate in an online anti-brand community to join forces to fight against “the oppressed underclass pitted against elite business adversaries” (p.695) (Kozinets and Handelman, 2004).

H4n1: Brand disidentification is positively related to Pro-social motive in online brand community.

Likewise, Internet users will also consider visiting online anti-brand community to exercise their empathy with freedom of speech and motive of social support to address some socially unjust issues about the brand owner in form of e-petition (Eaton, 2010, Finkelstein, 2011). People present themselves as crusaders to join anti-brand website to call for unity to fight against corporations’ betrayals of customer rights (Ward and Ostrom, 2006).

H4n2: Brand disidentification is positively related to Pro-social motive in online anti-brand community.

Brand Disidentification & Emotion Venting Motive

From the new social movement theory perspective, consumers participate in collective action to express their identity with a certain like-minded person (Shaw and Riach, 2011). Logically, for people who disidentify themselves from a brand would not join its brand community. If they do, they may consider it as a channel to find some like-minded people in some areas (e.g., product review/feedback section) to vent their emotion to the brand for the dissatisfaction and bad experience with the brand as an indirect revenge (Aquino et al., 2001).

H4o1: Brand disidentification is positively related to Emotion venting motive in online brand community.

An online anti-brand community is initiated by a people with common detestation and collective disidentification with the brand (Hollenbeck and Zinkhan, 2010). Key activities include complaint and negative word of mouth, which allow users to vent negative emotions about the brand (Klein and Dawar, 2004).

H4o2: Brand disidentification is positively related to Emotion venting motive in online anti-brand community.

Brand Disidentification & Networking Motive

One of the key functions of the online brand and anti-brand community is to provide a commonplace for the like-minded Internet users seeking for socio-emotional support 24/7 (Wiertz and de Ruyter, 2007).

Qualitative research also found out that some Internet users join the online communities in the social media setting (e.g., Facebook) simply because they see their peer joining by clicking 'like' in order to keep themselves to be the in-group with the peer group.

Moreover, Internet users who want to disidentify themselves from the brand could also find the like-minded through online brand and anti-brand community to share their experience about the brand with the participants, and join forces for collective actions (Bimber et al., 2005).

H4p1: Brand disidentification is positively related to Networking motive in online brand community.

H4p2: Brand disidentification is positively related to Networking motive in online anti-brand community.

6.5.2 Brand Emotion and Motives

Emotion has strong associations with motives (Bagozzi et al., 1999, Bradley et al., 2001). They are both individual factors to work together with incentives (situational factors) to create motivations (Schunk et al., 2008). From a mental processing point of view, some primary emotions such as happiness and anger are primitive and automatic affect for human beings. Recognition of emotion(s) will generate further effects to fulfil or violate certain motives (Sloman, 1987). For people with positive emotion to a brand, it is assumed that this will trigger and reinforce their motives for participating in the brand community.

6.5.2.1 Positive Brand Emotion and Motives

Positive Brand Emotion & Helping Motive

High level of emotional attachment means that it is likely that a person will invest in a person or object, such as through a commitment to help (Bowlby, 2005).

As shown in the qualitative research findings, for Internet users with strong brand emotion to a brand, when they participate in online anti-brand community, they may join the anti-brand community for some other reasons, such as following their peers. As such, even the multiple stakeholders participate in online anti-brand communities. This would not trigger a helping motive to fight against the brand in the community. On the contrary, the positive brand emotion may create a negative impact on helping motive in terms of helping other participants to get more negative information for hating a brand.

H5a1: Positive brand emotion is positively related to Helping motive in online brand community.

H5a2: Positive brand emotion is negatively related to Helping motive in online anti-brand community.

Positive Brand Emotion & Pro-social Motive

Positive brand emotion has demonstrated the drive to motivate people to react against all odds to maintain positive brand reputation and brand-customer relationship (Huber et al., 2010, Awasthi et al., 2012). It is believed that positive emotion will evoke positive drive on people's pro-social motive for practising pro-social behavior to speak for the brand.

H5b1: Positive brand emotion is positively related to Pro-social motive in online brand community.

As for the anti-brand community, from the multiple stakeholders perspective

H5b2: Positive brand emotion is negatively related to Pro-social motive in online anti-brand community.

Positive Brand Emotion & Emotion Venting Motive

Emotion venting is considered to be an action of desire for reconciliation and revenge (Klein and Dawar, 2004). It is assumed that in the online brand and anti-brand communities, people with positive brand emotion tend to vent their negative emotion about the brand for reconciliation.

H5c1: Positive brand emotion is positively related to Emotion Venting motive in online brand community.

However, in many online brand communities, Internet users may not be able to find certain message board or feedback areas to leave their message for venting their emotion and negative experience about the brand and/or company. Therefore they will consider visit online anti-brand communities (Kozinets et al., 2008).

H5c2: Positive brand emotion is positively related to Emotion Venting motive in online anti-brand community.

Positive Brand Emotion & Networking Motive

Online brand community is set up for the supporters of a brand and the brand owner to communicate and discuss about the brand and its activities. People with positive brand emotion to the brand would naturally network with each other in the online brand community to share their experience and knowledge (Joireman et al. 2013, Muniz and O'Guinn, 2001, Schau et al., 2009).

As for online anti-brand community, from the multiple stakeholders perspective, it is fair to assume that people with positive emotion to a brand will not be interested in joining an anti-brand community to fight against a brand (Velasquez and LaRose, 2014). As mentioned by the respondents of the qualitative research, if this happens, they may join to comment on a brand for fun in response to peer's participation invitation in social networking media (i.e., "Like" function in Facebook).

H5d1: Positive brand emotion is positively related to Networking motive in online brand community.

H5d2: Positive brand emotion is positively related to Networking motive in online anti-brand community.

6.5.2.2 Negative Brand Emotion and Motives

Negative Brand Emotion & Helping Motive

In a community, certain multiple stakeholders with negative brand emotion join brand community to express their negative opinions to the brand or organization. The results from the qualitative study have indicated that when they meet like-minded users, they are still willing to be helpful in assisting the like-minded people to co-create relevant content, such as sharing their negative experience and providing advice for how their voice be heard. As for online anti-brand communities, they could be used by a certain stakeholders with negative brand emotion for emotion venting, they are also willing to help the like-minded users to form collective action, for example, to fight against the social irresponsibility of an organization (Postmes, 2007, Vallaster and von Wallpach, 2013).

H5e1: Negative brand emotion is positively related to Helping motive in online brand community.

H5e2: Negative brand emotion is positively related to Helping motive in online anti-brand community.

Negative Brand Emotion & Pro-social Motive

Ironically, people with negative brand emotion may also join online brand community not for supporting the brand but out of a certain motives such as pro-social and emotion venting to express their negative emotion to the brand to the fans (out-group members) to depict a full picture of how the brand treats different stakeholders (Füller et al., 2008).

H5f1: Negative brand emotion is positively related to Pro-social motive in online brand community.

Anti-brand communities are set up for tribal opponents with common detestation to oppose to the brand owners of their favourite brands to address negative experience of the brand, social injustice, disapprove of corporation action and etc. (Cova et al., 2007, Holt, 2002, Hollenbeck and Zinkhan, 2010). Therefore, such brand protesters would usually have negative emotions when they think about that brand. Such an intuitive impulse could trigger a certain motives such as pro-social motive and emotion venting to take positive and contributing roles within an online anti-brand community.

H5f2: Negative brand emotion is positively related to Pro-social motive in online anti-brand community.

Negative Brand Emotion & Emotion Venting Motive

Emotion venting is considered to be an action of desire for reconciliation and revenge (Aquino et al., 2001, Joireman, 2013). It is assumed that in an online brand, multiple stakeholders with negative brand emotion tend to vent their negative emotion about the brand for destructive revenge in front of other stakeholders including the brand supporters. The findings of the qualitative study also reveal that people against the brand join the online brand and anti-brand communities to express their disapproval of the wrong doings of a brand. It seems clear that an online anti-brand community is a direct and convenient place for them to join to vent their anger and frustration with the brand or organization for emotional and functional support (Cova and White, 2010, Joireman et al., 2013).

H5g1: Negative brand emotion is positively related to Emotion Venting motive in online brand community.

H5g2: Negative brand emotion is positively related to Emotion Venting motive in online anti-brand community.

Negative Brand Emotion & Networking Motive

Online brand and anti-brand communities play an important role in the contemporary social movement for the consumers to mobilize collective actions against brands (Eaton, 2010, Klandermans, 1997, Klandermans, 2004). Therefore, it is assumed that like-minded stakeholders with negative brand emotion (e.g., protesters) intend to join online brand and anti-brand communities to network with each other and form collective actions to demonstrate their negative emotion to the brand. Again, qualitative research results show that such communities are ideal for the relevant stakeholders with same brand emotion to gather together to socialize with each other.

H5h1: Negative brand emotion is positively related to Networking motive in online brand community.

H5h2: Negative brand emotion is positively related to Networking motive in online anti-brand community.

6.6 Review of Constructs and Selection of Scales

In this study, nine constructs have been examined and used in the survey. These are moral identification, brand identification, brand disidentification, brand emotion, motives (helping, pro-social, networking, emotion venting) and community citizenship behavior. A 7-point Likert scale was adopted. Despite concerns regarding central tendency, this allows the respondents to perceive it as an easier and more understandable scale for use and administration. Details of the source of the measurement scales and the content are as follows.

6.6.1 Moral Identification

Aquino and Reed's (2002) measurement scale of moral identification consists of the private (i.e., internalization) and public (i.e., symbolization) dimensions of moral identification. A narration of a person with moral characteristics (e.g., fair, helpful, honest) was put before the scale, followed by ten measurement items (5 each for internalization and symbolization) using 7-point Likert scales, from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7), to measure the respondents' level of agreement on the description of a moral person versus their own perceived level of moral identification. The research has shown good reliability of Cronbach's alpha reliabilities for 0.78 for Internalization and 0.69 for Symbolization scales. Further research by Reynolds and Ceranic (2007) also shows consistent reliability of Cronbach's alpha at 0.83 for Internalization and 0.79 for Symbolization (Table 10).

Table 10: Moral Identification Measurement Scale (Internalization & Symbolization)

Item Code	Item (Aquino and Reed, 2002)
Internalization	
INT1	It would make me feel good to be a person who has these characteristics.
INT2	Being someone who has these characteristics is an important part of who I am.
INT3	I would be ashamed to be a person who had these characteristics. (Reverse scale)
INT4	Having these characteristics is NOT really important to me. (Reverse scale)
INT5	I strongly desire to have these characteristics.
Symbolization	
SYM1	I often wear clothes that identify me as having these characteristics.
SYM2	The types of things I do in my spare time (e.g., hobbies) clearly identify me as having these characteristics.
SYM3	The kinds of books and magazines that I read identify me as having these characteristics.
SYM4	The fact that I have these characteristics is communicated to others by my membership in certain organizations.
SYM5	I am actively involved in activities that communicate to others that I have these characteristics.

6.6.2 Brand Identification

This construct is made up of three measurement items that were adapted from Mael and Ashforth's (1992) conceptualization of organizational identification in the quasi-consumer context (Alumni). Basically, it measures how the respondents perceive their belongingness to the brand and share the same identity with the members in it. This measurement has been widely adopted in the measurement of identification in the management and marketing areas (Bhattacharya et al., 1995, Bhattacharya and Elsbach, 2002, Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003, Bergami and Bagozzi, 2000).

In the context of mainstream consumer research, this measure has demonstrated strong construct reliability and validity in He and Li's (2011) (AVE = 0.58, α = 0.86) and Marin et al.'s (2009) study (AVE = 0.62, α = 0.89). It makes sense to understand that an online brand community member feels offended and insulted to hear the criticism from others about the focal brand, which is a matter of personal choice and internalization of one's self-definition (Marin et al., 2009) (Table 11).

Table 11: Organizational Identification and Brand Identification Measurement Scales

Item Code	Organizational Identification (Mael and Ashforth, 1992)	Brand Identification
BID1	This school's successes are my successes.	This brand's successes are my successes.
BID2	When someone praises this school, it feels like a personal compliment.	If someone praises this brand, it feels like a personal compliment.
BID3	When someone criticizes (name of school), it feels like a personal insult.	If someone criticizes this brand, it feels like a personal insult.
	I am very interested in what others think about (name of school).	
	When I talk about this school, I usually say 'we' rather than 'they'.	
	If a story in the media criticized the school, I would feel embarrassed.	

6.6.3 Brand Disidentification

Same as brand identification, Elsbach and Bhattacharya (2001) adopt the measurement scale from Mael and Ashforth (1992) to develop the measurement scale of organizational disidentification with Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.79 ($p = 0.84$) (Table 12).

Table 12: Organizational Disidentification and Brand Disidentification Measurement Scales

Item Code	Organizational Disidentification (Elsbach and Bhattacharya 2001)	Brand Disidentification
BDID1	The NRA's failures are my successes.	The brand's failures are my successes.
BDID2	When someone praises the NRA, it feels like a personal insult.	When someone praises this brand, it feels like a personal insult.
BDID3	When someone criticizes the NRA, it feels like a personal compliment.	When someone criticizes this brand, it feels like a personal compliment.

6.6.4 Brand Emotion

The measurement scale of positive brand emotion is taken from Thomson et al.'s (2005) research for development of scale to measure the strength of consumers' emotional attachment to brands (Table 13). The measurement scale has shown a high Cronbach's alpha reliability of 0.93. In other research to understand brand emotion on consumers' behaviors namely purchase intention, word-of-mouth and willingness to buy, such measurement scale has achieved a Cronbach's alpha reliability of 0.95.

Negative brand emotion is based on the negative feeling measurement scale from Burke and Edell's (1989) activity and gentleness scale, which has shown a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.88. Yoo and MacInnis' (2005) research about brand attitude formation process in informational and emotional advertisements has also used this scale. Cronbach's alpha reliability value was 0.92.

Table 13: Positive and Negative Brand Emotion Measurement Scales

Item Code	Item
Positive Brand Emotion (Thomson et al., 2005)	
BE1	Affectionate
BE2	Friendly
BE3	Loved
BE4	Peaceful
BE5	Passionate
BE6	Delighted
BE7	Captivated
BE8	Connected
BE9	Bonded
BE10	Attached
Negative Brand Emotion (Burke and Edell, 1989)	
BE11	Sad
BE12	Sorrowful
BE13	Distressed
BE14	Irritated
BE15	Angry
BE16	Annoyed
BE17	Offended
BE18	Depressed

6.6.5 Motives of Online Community Participation

Motives are antecedents of motivation for performing a certain action or behavior. In this research, Motives of online community participation were used (Table 14). They are motives of Pro-social (0.81), Helping (0.89), Networking (0.82) and Emotion Venting (0.93). They have all achieved the Cronbach's alpha value of reliability at above 0.7 level.

Table 14: Pro-social, Helping, Networking and Emotion Venting Motives Measurement Scale

Item Code	Item
Pro-social (He and Kwok, 2011)	
PS1	I want to form alliance with other members to support the well-being of the society
PS2	I am interested in keeping up with the development of key concerns of the community
PS3	I care about the key concerns of the community
Helping (He and Kwok, 2011)	
HE1	Help those in need
HE2	Help its members in any way I can
HE3	Be helpful
Emotion venting (He and Kwok, 2011)	
EV1	Release my emotions
EV2	Express my irritations with society
EV2	Express my feelings and frustrations
Networking (He and Kwok, 2011)	
NET1	Make new friends
NET2	Come into contact with different people at all times
NET3	Feel connected to people from all over the world

6.6.6 Community Citizenship Behavior

As discussed in the literature review chapter, there are a number of conceptualization and measurement scales of citizenship behavior derived from organizational behavior (Boiral, 2009, Organ et al., 2006). Finally, Groth's (2005) measurement scale of consumer citizenship behavior in Internet service deliveries was chosen for this research as a key component of measurement. This is because this scale was developed for marketing consumer behavior in the online media.

The background of Groth's research matches most closely to this research. Groth's (2005) construct of customer citizenship behavior consists of recommendations, helping customers and providing feedback. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for these three dimensions were 0.93, 0.92 and 0.80 respectively.

Moreover, the dimensions of knowledge sharing and willingness to moderate in the online communities were added to community citizenship behavior. Lin's (2007) measurement scale for knowledge sharing in organization was used. Such research has shown result of 0.85 on Cronbach's alpha reliability. This measurement scale has been widely used in online community research (Yu et al., 2010, Fang and Chiu, 2010, Yang and Lai, 2010, Jadin et al., 2012, Pi et al., 2013). For example, in Yu et al.'s (2010) study about knowledge sharing behavior via weblogs, Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the same Knowledge Sharing measurement scale is 0.86.

Willingness to Moderate is a newly created measurement scale in He and Kwok's (2011) research as a new dimension of community citizenship behavior in the online platform with a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.76. The overall Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the overall community citizenship behavior of the five dimensions was 0.95 (Table 15).

Table 15: Community Citizenship Behavior Measurement Scale

Item Code		
	Knowledge sharing intention (Lin 2007)	Knowledge sharing
KS1	I intend to share knowledge with my colleagues more frequently in the future.	I intend to post information in this online community regularly in the future.
KS2	I will try to share my knowledge with my colleagues.	I will try to share my comments with members of this online community in the future.
KS3	I will always make an effort to share knowledge with my colleagues.	I will always make an effort to provide feedback to members of this online community.
	I intend to share knowledge with colleagues who ask.	
	Recommendations (Groth 2005)	Recommendations
REC1	Recommend the business to your family.	Recommend this online community to my family.
REC2	Recommend the business to your peers.	Recommend this online community to my peers.
REC3	Recommend the business to people interested in the business' products/services.	Recommend this community to people interested in the community/brand content.
	Refer fellow students or coworkers to the business.	
	Helping customers (Groth 2005)	Helping others
H01	Assist other customers in finding information.	Assist other members in finding information.
H02	Help others with their shopping.	Help others with their information research.
H03	Teach someone how to use the service correctly.	Teach someone how to use the online community correctly.
	Explain to other customers how to use the service correctly.	

	Providing feedback (Groth 2005)	Providing feedback
FB1	Provide helpful feedback to customer service.	Provide helpful feedback to the host.
FB2	Provide information when surveyed by the business.	Provide information when surveyed by the online community.
FB3	Inform business about the great service received by an individual employee.	Inform the host about the great information or support received by an individual member.
	Willingness to moderate (He and Kwok, 2011)	Willingness to moderate
MD1	Explain to other members how to use the online community correctly.	Explain to other members how to use the online community correctly.
MD2	Report to the owner/webmaster misuse/abuse in the community.	Report to the owner/webmaster misuse/abuse in the community.
MD3	Draw participants to good quality interaction (e.g., discussion)	Draw participants to good quality interaction (e.g., discussion)

6.7 Description of the Questionnaire

Before the respondents saw the online questionnaire, a short message was posted in the chosen online brand and anti-brand communities to briefly explain that the survey was part of a PhD research to understand people's behavior in online brand or anti-brand communities, followed by the incentives and length of the survey.

The online questionnaire is the survey instrument, which is made up of twelve broad questions as shown in Appendix 4. It first started with the introduction of the survey, namely, area of study, purpose and data handling to explain the relevancy of the respondents to the research and confidentiality of the data that they provided.

The final draft of the questionnaire was sent to a professor in the marketing discipline and a director in the customized research department of a global research agency to evaluate the wording and structure of each construct and questionnaire format for content validity. Pre-testing was performed again with another two experts in marketing research and marketing communication for further comments and fine-tuning. The sequence of the questions was re-arranged based on the feedback from the pre-test, pilot test recommendations from a customized research expert from an international market research agency and an experienced academic researcher in the marketing field. The questionnaire started with general and more straightforward questions as warm up questions (i.e., frequency and time spent on specific online (anti-)brand community and motives, size and setup of community), followed by some in-depth questions which required more time and effort in answering (i.e., brand identification, brand disidentification, brand emotion, community citizenship behavior) and case study type of questions for moral identification.

The questionnaire ended with personal background information (i.e., gender, age, education, online community role, residence). The respondents were also asked at the end of the questionnaire to provide email address if they were interested in the prize drawing.

In terms of style of questioning, based on the feedback from the pre-test, the respondents were asked about their level of agreement to some statements, phrases or wording of a certain topics in order to use the same format of 7-point Likert scale to help avoid the users to keep switching to different scales answering modes which would cause longer completion time and confusion. This also made the questionnaire shorter and more organized.

6.8 Summary

This chapter presented the conceptual research model derived from the relevant literature review. The conceptual model proposes five groups of hypothesis, which account for the antecedents and consequences of online brand and anti-brand community participation.

A choice of multiple identity: Moral Identification (internalization and symbolization), Brand Identification and Brand Dis-identification, Motives (Pro-social, Helping, Networking, and Emotion Venting), Brand Emotion (Positive and Negative) are proposed to be the antecedents to online brand and anti-brand community participation.

A newly created concept of Community Citizenship Behavior, which consists of three dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior (Helping Others, Recommendations and Providing Feedback), knowledge sharing and willingness to moderate is proposed as the direct consequences of participation. This is followed by the discussion of measurement scales used for the survey. Table 16 summarizes the construct relationship in the conceptual models for online brand and anti-brand communities participation.

The next chapter will discuss firstly the demographic profile of the respondents for the online survey and results of the measurement model tests.

Table 16: Summary of Research Hypotheses

No.	Construct Relationship	Online Brand Community	Online Anti-brand Community
1a	Internalization → CCB	+	+
1b	Symbolization → CCB	+	+
1c	Brand ID → CCB	+	-
1d	Brand DisID → CCB	-	+
2a	Positive Brand Emotion → CCB	+	+
2b	Negative Brand Emotion → CCB	-	+
3a	Helping → CCB	+	+
3b	Pro-social → CCB	+	+
3c	Emotion Venting → CCB	+	+
3d	Networking → CCB	+	+
4a	Internalization → Helping	+	+
4b	Symbolization → Helping	+	+
4c	Internalization → Pro-social	+	+
4d	Symbolization → Pro-social	+	+
4e	Internalization → Emotion Venting	+	+
4f	Symbolization → Emotion Venting	+	+
4g	Internalization → Networking	-	-
4h	Symbolization → Networking	+	+
4i	Brand ID → Helping	+	+
4j	Brand ID → Pro-social	+	+
4k	Brand ID → Emotion Venting	+	+
4l	Brand ID → Networking	+	+
4m	Brand DisID → Helping	-	+
4n	Brand DisID → Pro-social	+	+
4o	Brand DisID → Emotion Venting	+	+
4p	Brand DisID → Networking	+	+
5a	Positive BE → Helping	+	-
5b	Positive BE → Pro-social	+	+
5c	Positive BE → Emotion Venting	+	+
5d	Positive BE → Networking	+	+
5e	Negative BE → Helping	+	+
5f	Negative BE → Pro-social	+	+
5g	Negative BE → Emotion Venting	+	+
5h	Negative BE → Networking	+	+

“+” refers to positive relationship, “-” refers to negative relationship

Chapter 7: Quantitative Research Data Analysis

7.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the demographic characteristics of the test sample, the data analysis procedures used and the findings of the analysis. Data analysis procedures included confirmatory factor analysis and multi-group analysis. Confirmatory factor analysis was used to determine the discriminant and convergent validity of the constructs in the measurement models. Path analysis was used to test the proposed hypotheses of the models. Multi-group analysis was conducted across the online brand group and anti-brand group to find out the path differences.

7.2 Demographic Profile of the Respondents

Data collection was from 1st January to 20th May 2012. A longer period was planned because the members might miss the invitation link if they do not visit the online brand or anti-brand community regularly. For some media, such as Facebook, member postings were usually given in a lower priority. In other words, the chance of being read is lower.

In some popular groups, there were many frequent postings within the group. The invitation link could become obsolete very quickly, and follow-up messages were posted in the selected communities every two weeks to remind the community members to complete the survey.

Data collection was conducted via an online survey from January to May 2012. A total of 1,099 brand and anti-brand community web site addresses were collected for the 142 global brands to send out an invitation email to ask for support from the webmaster in sending out the questionnaire link to their online community members. 409 of them were for online brand communities (37%) and 690 are for online anti-brand communities (63%). They were found through Google search engine and online social networking media (i.e., Facebook and Twitter).

In total, the survey collected 460 responses, of which 460 were completed. Out of the 460 completed questionnaires, 260 were from online brand communities and 200 from online anti-brand communities (i.e., response rate of 63.2% and 56.2%). Appendix 5 is the summary of the respondents' demographic characteristics and membership of the respondents.

7.3 Analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was carried out by using the statistical software AMOS 19.0 to test for reliability of the measurement scales with the Maximum Likelihood (ML) method for confirmatory assessment. Measurement items with high modification indices (MI) and standardized factor loading below 0.5 were deleted. Whenever the measurement item was dropped, the measurement model was re-estimated to examine if the item drop would change the conceptual definitions of the concepts or constructs.

Structural Equation Modeling

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was employed to test the hypotheses. As an extension of multivariate technique, this is a confirmatory approach to test hypotheses (Byrne, 2009, Hair, 2009). Compared to the traditional multivariate approach, SEM could “simultaneously estimate multiple dependence relationships while also incorporating multiple measures for each concept” (Hair, 2009).

A two-step approach of data analysis was used to analyze the measurement model (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). Firstly, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to test the fit and construct validity of the constructs in the proposed models.

This was followed by testing the structural model and the path significance of the proposed relationships. The Maximum Likelihood approach was used for structural equation modeling because the estimates for ML approach have been demonstrated to be robust (Chou and Bentler, 1995).

Reliability and Validity

Reliability. The reliability of measurement items is interpreted by coefficient of internal consistency, which refers to the degree of consistency of all measurement items measuring the same dimension or attribute (Cronbach, 1951). In other words, measurement items with high internal consistency reliability measures the same construct. A high level of internal consistency also lowers the measurement error. As such, measurement scales with high internal consistency are preferred (Kottner and Streiner, 2010).

Cronbach's alpha is the mostly used coefficient for estimation of internal consistency. In this research, Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.7 was set as the recommended cut-off value to determine the internal consistency reliability of each measurement scale (Nunnally, 2010).

In this research, the rule-of-thumb minimum value of 0.50 of item-to-total correction and 0.30 for inter-item correlations were set for the measurement scale for assessment of internal consistency (Hair, 2009).

Convergent Validity. Convergent validity has been taken care of in data analysis. This refers to the extent to which items of construct share or converge a high proportion of common variance (Hair, 2009). Although Hair et al. (2010) proposed that an acceptable level of factor loading at 0.5 would be sufficient for convergent validity, other researchers argued for higher level of factor loading at 0.6 (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988) and 0.7 (Fornell and Larcker, 1981).

Apart from the abovementioned requirement of factor loading, researchers also consider that the Average Variance Extracted (AVE), or mathematically denoted Rho value should reach a minimum of 0.5 (Fornell and Larcker, 1981).

Composite Validity and Reliability. When uni-dimensionality as well as convergent validity is validated, composite validity is validated (Gerbing and Anderson, 1988, Cortina, 1993). The composite reliabilities (CR) are measured by Joreskog Rho as an indicator of construct reliability. According to Bagozzi and Yi (1988), such value at or above 0.60 is considered acceptable.

Discriminant Validity. This is evaluated by a) checking the highest correlation value between any pair of constructs and b) comparing with AVE square roots. The square root of AVEs should be higher than the value of the highest correlation among any pair of constructs in the measurement model. Discriminant validity could also be evaluated by comparing the AVE values with the square of the correlation estimate between constructs proposed in the measurement model (Fornell and Larcker, 1981).

Model Fit Assessment

To assess model fit, Goodness-of-fit indices namely GFI, CFI, NFI and TLI and Badness-of-fit indices namely RMSEA and SRMR were checked to confirm the null hypothesis of the correct model. In this research, chi-square statistics compared to degree of freedom (χ^2/df), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) were examined to check if the final model would reach a minimal fit of model at 0.9.

Common Method Bias

Common method bias refers to the limitation that we only used self-report questionnaires (Podsakoff et al., 2003). To consider the common method bias in the proposed structural model, a model with a common latent factor was tested. The standardized coefficients of the indicator variables from this model were compared to the standardized coefficients of the indicator variables from the full measurement model. The differences between the standardized coefficients were then computed. Differences above 0.20 would indicate that there is a common method bias.

Multi-Group Analysis

One key purpose of this research is to find out the similarities and differences on the antecedents and consequences of online brand and anti-brand community participation. Simultaneous multi-group analyses were conducted across brand and anti-brand groups.

To begin with, in the first simultaneous procedure, all the path coefficients were free to vary, and the model fit was assessed. The chi-square value of this unconstrained procedure served as the baseline measure for succeeding steps. In the second simultaneous procedure, all path coefficients were required to be equal across groups; the change in chi-square value between the baseline measure and this second simultaneous procedure was taken. A significant change in chi-square indicated that one or more of the path coefficients were not invariant across groups (Byrne, 2009).

7.4 Results of the Measurement Model Tests

7.4.1 Procedure

The proposed measurement model consisted of three second-order factors (i.e., Positive BE, Negative BE, and CCB) and eight first-order factors (i.e., BrandID, BrandDisID, Internalization, Symbolization, Helping, Pro-social, Emotion venting, and Networking). Prior to testing the full measurement model, confirmatory factor analyses were conducted on each of the second-order factors. These were done to determine whether the proposed number of first-order factors indeed represented the second-order factor.

The proposed measurement models for each of these factors were compared to models with fewer factors; the change in chi-square between the proposed model and the model with fewer factors was taken. If the fit was significantly better for the proposed than the more complex model, it was retained. Model fit was assessed by interpreting the following fit indices:

1. Comparative Fit Index (CFI) – value of .95 and above indicates good model fit (Hu and Bentler, 1999)
2. Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) – value of .95 and above indicates good model fit; (Hu and Bentler, 1999);
3. Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) – value less than .05 indicates good model fit; value less than .08 indicates reasonable fit; value less than .10 has poor fit (Browne et al., 1993)
4. Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) – value less than .08 indicates good model fit (Hu and Bentler, 1998);
5. Normed chi-square or ratio of likelihood χ^2 to degrees of freedom – benchmark still not established but the lower the number (i.e., below 3.00), the better the fit.

All factor loadings were evaluated at the .05 level.

7.4.2 Results for the Proposed Measurement Model of Positive Brand Emotion (BE)

The results for the proposed measurement model of Positive BE in Table 13 indicate that the three-factor model fit well, at least in terms of CFI and SRMR. Nevertheless, the modification indices (MI) were examined to determine whether each of the items were not cross-loading onto other items. Byrne (2001) notes that indicator variables with high modification indices (MI) indicate that the variables cross-load onto other constructs and thus do not have discriminant validity.

The error term for BE1 was highly correlated with the error terms for BE10 (MI = 22.75) and BE6 (MI = 19.23). In addition, BE1 loaded onto BE10 (MI = 16.01). Thus, BE1 was deleted.

The error term for BE7 was highly correlated with the error terms for Connection (MI = 58.48) and BE10 (MI = 20.83). Further, BE7 loaded onto BE10 (MI = 26.30) and BE8 (MI = 15.96). Therefore, BE7 was deleted.

As shown in Table 17, this model fits well, at least in terms of the CFI, TLI, and SRMR. Therefore, this model (depicted in Figure 9) was compared to a simpler two-factor model (depicted in Figure 10). Given that the correlation between the two constructs, Affection and Passion, was very high, at .97, both factors were merged into a single factor. As shown in Table 13, this two-factor model fit the data well as well. But the change in chi-square from the two-factor to the three-factor model was statistically significant, $\Delta\chi^2(2) = 12.65$, $p < .002$, thus indicating that the three-factor model fit significantly better. Therefore, the three-factor model was retained.

Table 17: Chi-square Results and Goodness of Fit Indices for the Positive BE Measurement Models

Index	Three-Factor		Two-Factor
	Proposed	Revised	
Chi-square	266.02	93.94	106.59
Degrees of freedom	32.00	17.00	19.00
Sig.	.00	.00	.00
Normed chi-square (chi-square/df)	8.31	5.53	5.61
Tucker-Lewis index (TLI)	.93	.97	.98
Comparative fit index (CFI)	.95	.98	.96
Root mean squared error (RMSEA)	.13	.10	.10
Lower bound of 90 percent confidence interval	.11	.08	.08
Upper bound of 90 percent confidence interval	.14	.12	.12
Standardized root mean square residual (SRMR)	.03	.02	.02

Note. At $p < .05$, critical $\chi^2_{\text{crit}}(2) = 5.99$.

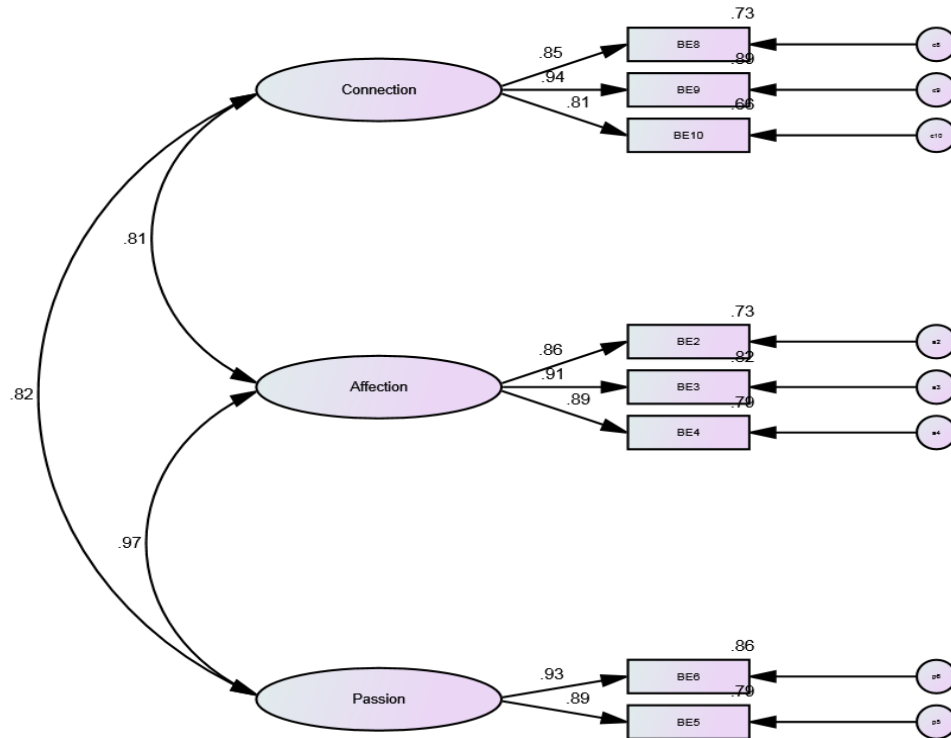


Figure 9: Standardized Coefficients for the Three-factor Positive BE Model

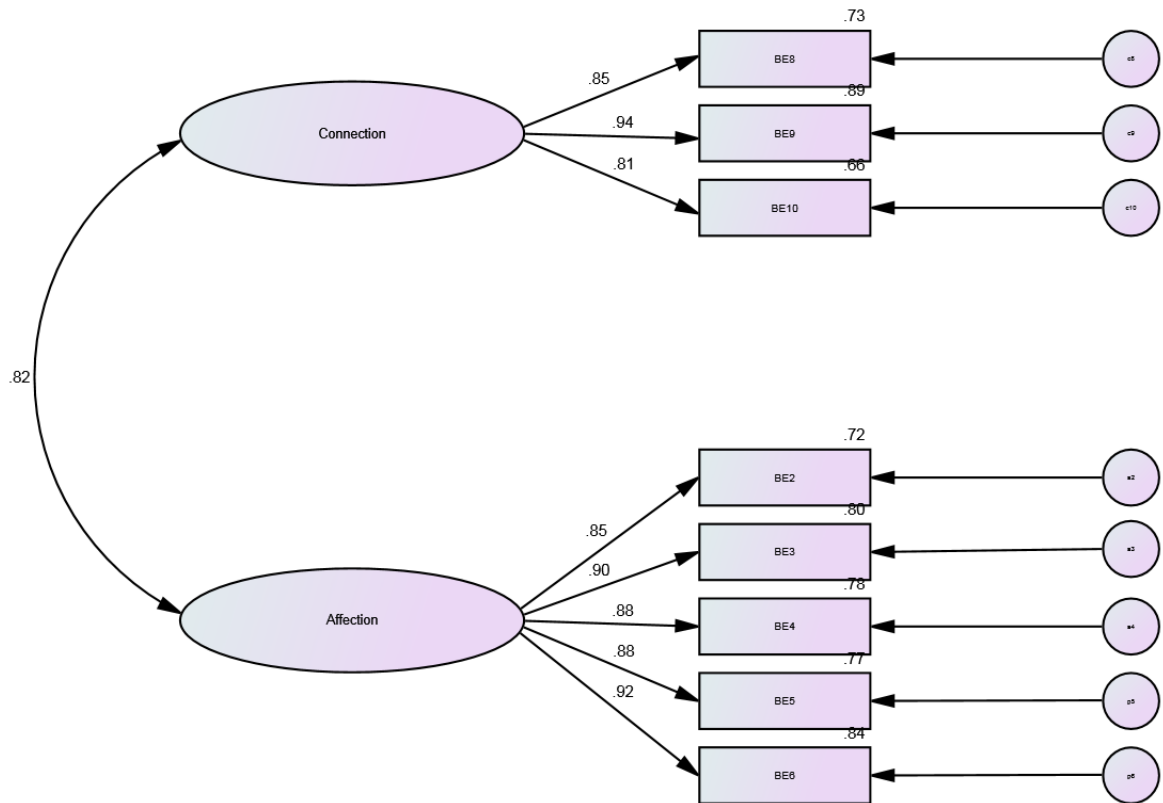


Figure 10: Standardized Coefficients for the Positive BE Two-factor Model

7.4.3 Results for the Proposed Measurement Model of Negative BE

1. The results for the proposed measurement model of Negative BE in Table 18 indicate that the two-factor model did not fit well. Thus, the modification indices (MI) were examined to determine whether each of the items were not cross-loading onto other items.
2. The error term for BE12 was highly correlated with the error terms for Depression (MI = 148.21) and Irritation (MI = 53.32). In addition, BE12 loaded onto BE11 (MI = 16.15). Thus, BE12 was deleted.

3. The error term for BE17 was highly correlated with the error term for Depression (MI = 27.29). Further, BE17 loaded onto BE18 (MI = 23.72). Thus, BE17 was deleted.
4. As shown in Table 18, this model fit well, at least in terms of the CFI and SRMR. Therefore, this model (depicted in Figure 11) was compared to a simpler single-factor model (depicted in Figure 12). As shown in Table 18, this single-factor model also fit the data well. But the change in chi-square from the single-factor to the two-factor model was statistically significant, $\Delta\chi^2(1) = 39.42, p < .001$, thus indicating that the two-factor model fit significantly better. Therefore, the two-factor model was retained.

Table 18: Chi-square Results and Goodness of Fit Indices for the Negative BE Measurement Models

Index	Two-Factor		One-Factor
	Proposed	Revised	
Chi-square	540.06	160.26	199.68
Degrees of freedom	21.00	8.00	9.00
Sig.	.00	.00	.00
Normed chi-square (chi-square/df)	25.72	20.03	22.19
Tucker-Lewis index (TLI)	.89	.93	.92
Comparative fit index (CFI)	.92	.96	.95
Root mean squared error (RMSEA)	.23	.20	.22
Lower bound of 90 percent confidence interval	.22	.18	.19
Upper bound of 90 percent confidence interval	.25	.23	.24
Standardized root mean square residual (SRMR)	.05	.02	.03

Note. At $p < .05$, critical $\chi^2_{\text{crit}}(1) = 3.84$.

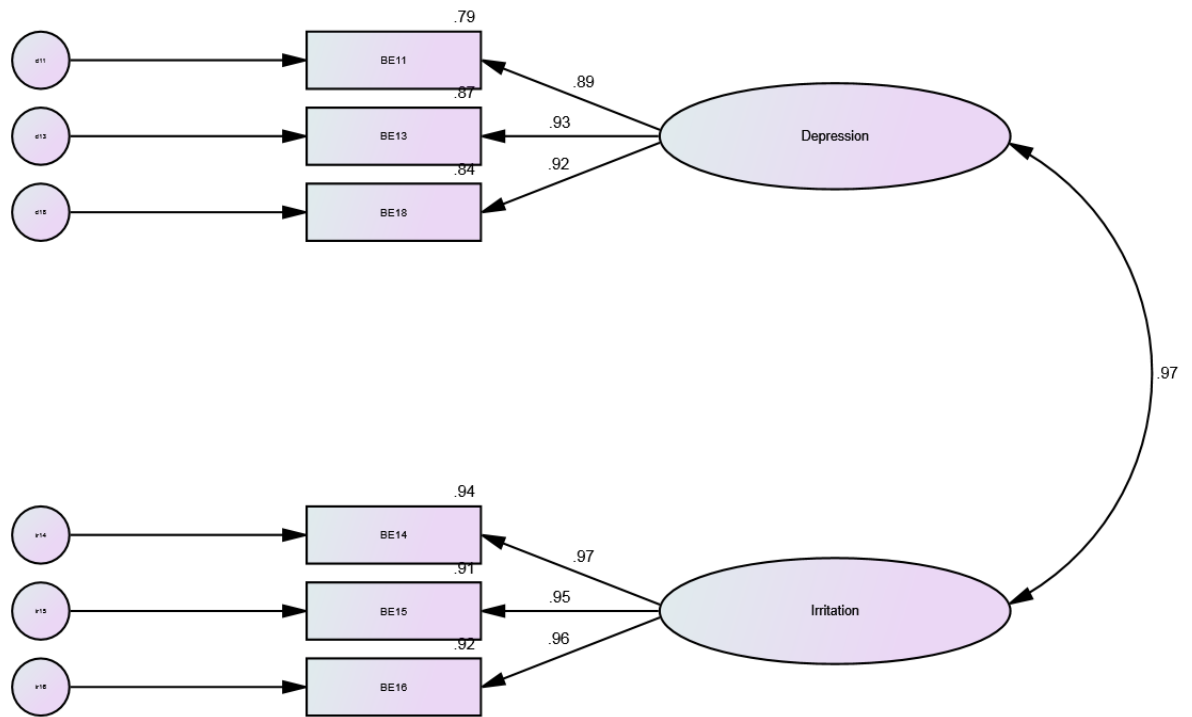


Figure 11: Standardized Coefficients for the Two-factor Negative BE Model

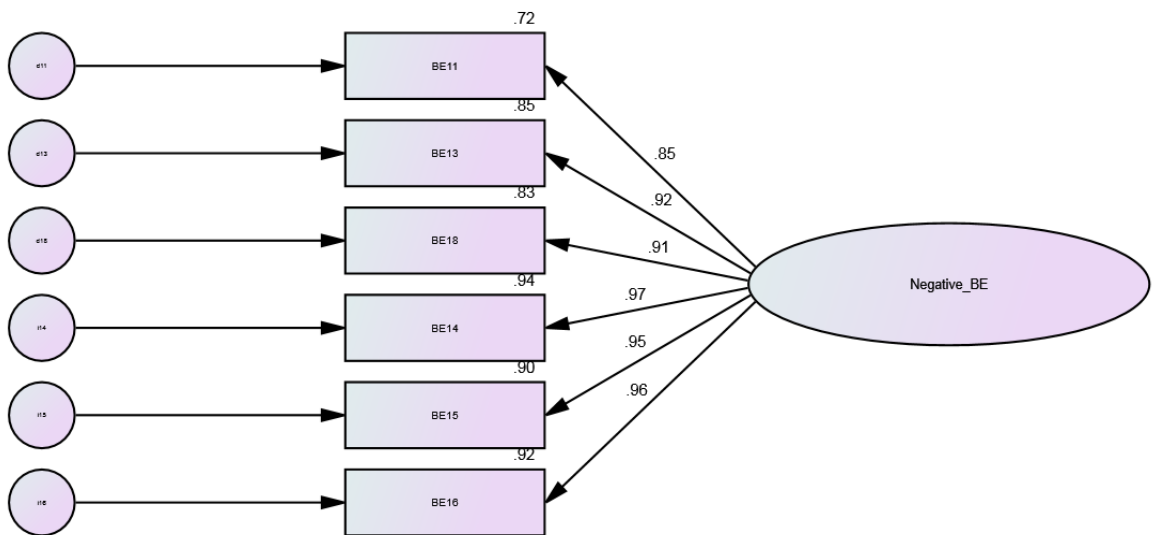


Figure 12: Standardized Coefficients for the Single-factor Negative BE Model

7.4.4 Results for the Proposed Measurement Model of Community Citizenship Behavior

The results for the proposed measurement model of CCB in Table 19 indicate that the five-factor model did not fit well. Thus, the modification indices (MI) were examined to determine whether or not each item was cross-loading onto other items.

The error term for Moderator 1 was highly correlated with the error terms for Help Others 3 (MI = 106.42) and Help Others (MI = 80.34). In addition, Moderator 1 loaded onto Help Other 3 (MI = 68.09), Help Other 2 (MI = 20.42), and Help Other 1 (MI = 18.11). Thus, Moderator 1 was deleted.

As shown in Table 19, the revised model fit well, at least in terms of the CFI, TLI, and SRMR. Therefore, this model (depicted in Figure 13) was compared to a simpler four-factor model (depicted in Figure 14). Given that the correlation between the two constructs, Feedback and Moderate, was very high at .97, both factors were combined into a single factor. This four-factor model also fit the data well. Further, since the change in chi-square from the four-factor to the five-factor model was not statistically significant, $\Delta\chi^2 (8) = 13.79, NS$, the four-factor model was chosen over the five-factor model.

Table 19: Chi-square Results and Goodness of Fit Indices for the Community Citizenship Behavior Measurement Models

Index	Five-Factor		Four-Factor
	Proposed	Revised	
Chi-square	718.39	332.38	318.59
Degrees of freedom	80.00	67.00	59.00
Sig.	.00	.00	.00
Normed chi-square (chi-square/df)	8.98	4.96	5.40
Tucker-Lewis index (TLI)	.91	.96	.96
Comparative fit index (CFI)	.93	.97	.97
Root mean squared error (RMSEA)	.13	.09	.10
Lower bound of 90 percent confidence interval	.12	.08	.09
Upper bound of 90 percent confidence interval	.14	.10	.11
Standardized root mean square residual (SRMR)	.05	.04	.04

Note. At $p < .05$, critical $\chi^2_{\text{crit}}(8) = 15.51$.

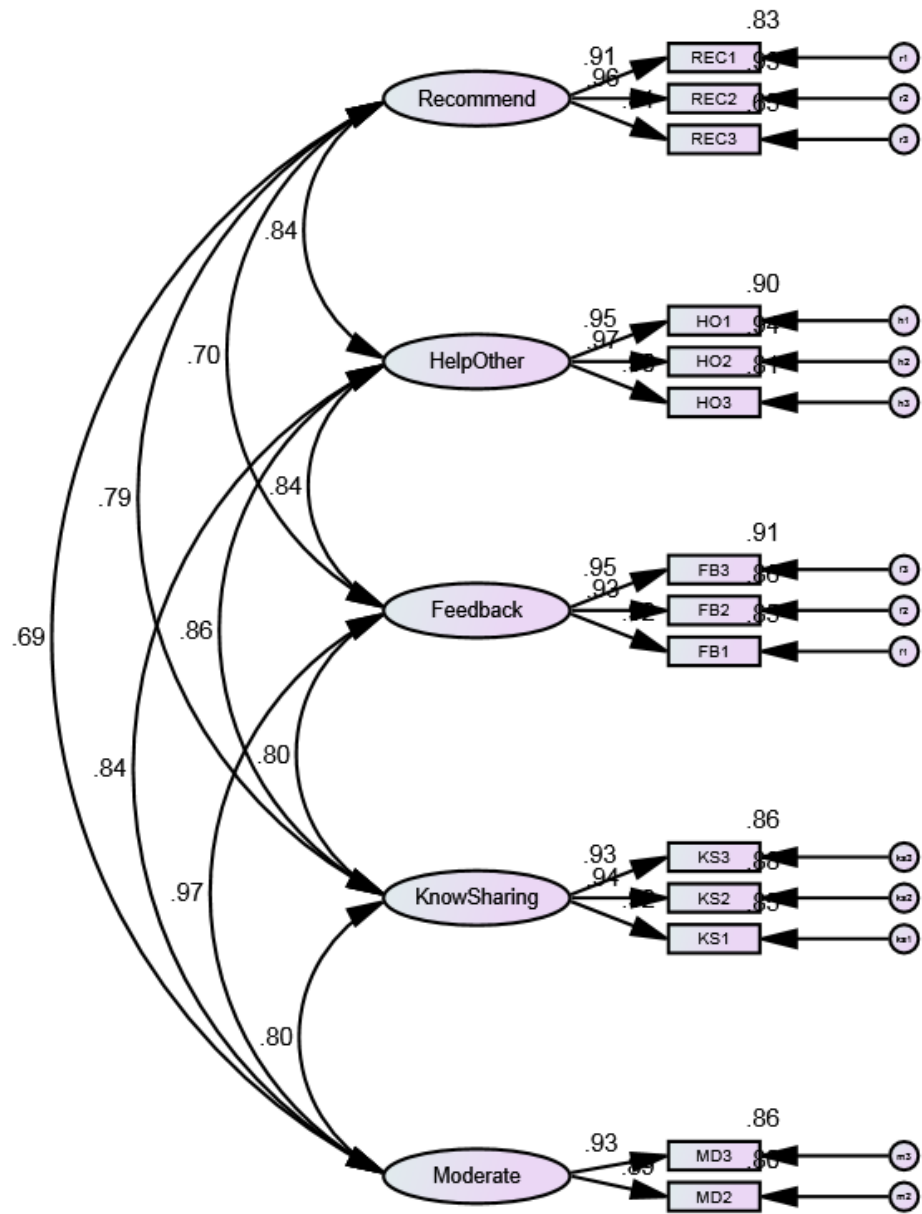


Figure 13: Standardized Coefficients for the Five-factor CCB Measurement Model

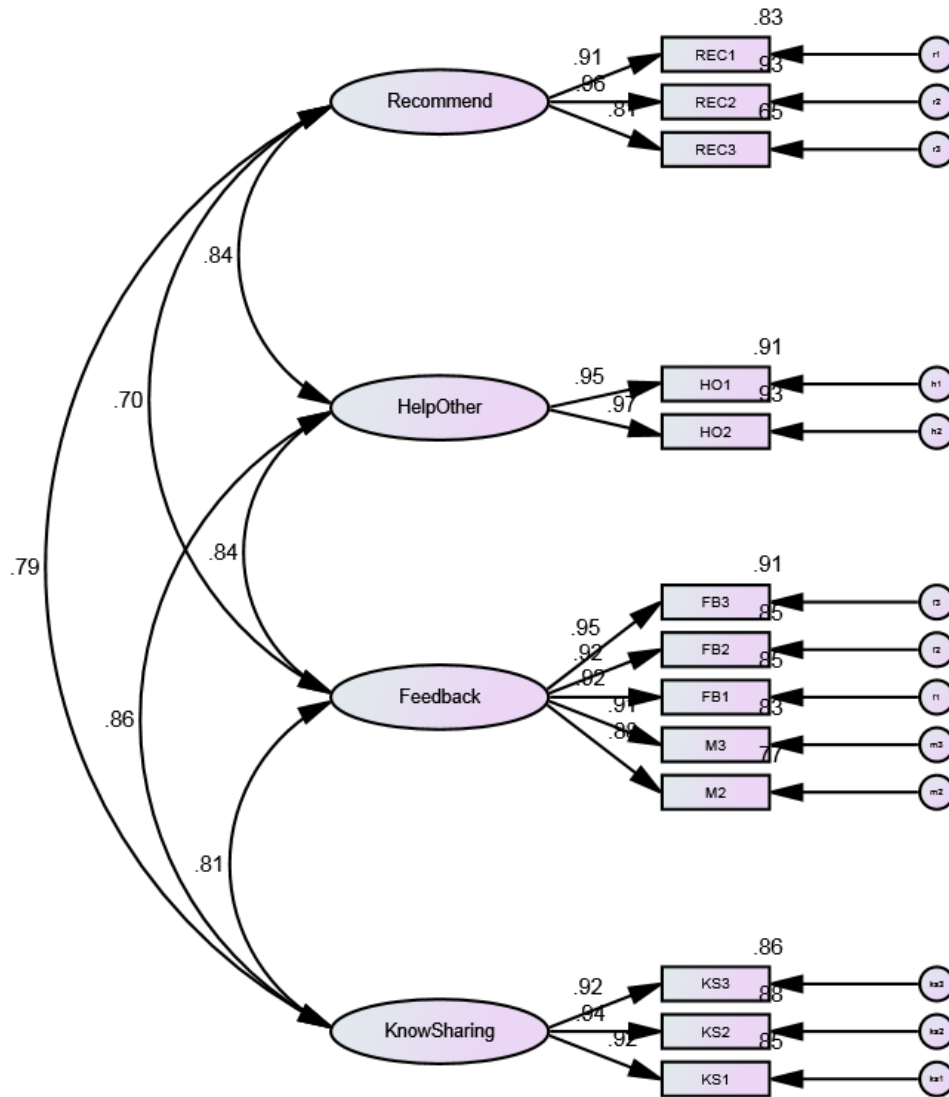


Figure 14: Standardized Coefficients for the Four-factor CCB Measurement Model

7.4.5 Results for the Full Measurement Model

The results for the proposed measurement model in Table 20 reveal that the model fit adequately, as all indices were in the adequate range. Nevertheless, the model was modified based on two criteria. First, only indicator variables with standardized factor loadings above .70 were retained (Hair, 2009).

Second, indicator variables with high modification indices (MI) were deleted, as this was an indication that the variables were cross-loading onto other constructs (Byrne, 2009).

Based on these criteria, several items were deleted. A list of the deleted items and the reasons for their deletion is displayed in Table 21.

The fit indices for the revised measurement model in Table 20 reveal that the model fit the data better than the proposed measurement model. The CFI and TLI values were above .95, the RMSEA was .05, and the SRMR was .04. Further, the change in chi-square between the proposed and revised model was statistically significant ($\Delta\chi^2(350) = 1035.11, p < .001$). In addition, all item indicators loaded significantly on to their respective constructs.

Table 20: Chi-square Results and Goodness of Fit Indices for the Full Measurement Models

Index	Proposed	Revised
Chi-square	3093.96	2058.85
Degrees of freedom	1314.00	971.00
Sig.	.00	.00
Normed chi-square (chi-square/df)	2.36	2.12
Tucker-Lewis index (TLI)	.94	.96
Comparative fit index (CFI)	.93	.95
Root mean squared error (RMSEA)	.05	.05
Lower bound of 90 percent confidence interval	.05	.05
Upper bound of 90 percent confidence interval	.06	.05
Standardized root mean square residual (SRMR)	.05	.04

Note. At $p < .05$, critical $\chi^2_{\text{crit}}(350) = 394.63$.

Table 21: Items Deleted from the Proposed Measurement Model

Item	SFL/MI
Standardized factor loadings less than .70	
Support seeking 2	.57
Impression management 2	.64
Networking 2	
Error term highly correlated with error term of Networking 3	131.30
Networking 2 loaded onto Networking 3	37.51
Symbolization 5	
Error term highly correlated with error term of Symbolization 4	47.49
Loaded on highly to Symbolization 4	17.87
Symbolization 4	
Loaded on highly to Internalization 1	11.29
Loaded on highly to Internalization 5	8.71
Recommend 3	
Loaded on highly to Feedback 2	31.98
Loaded on highly to Moderator 2	24.87
Loaded on highly to Help Other 1	26.19
Depression 13	
Error term highly correlated with error term of Irritation 14	52.58

Note. SFL = Standardized Factor Loading. MI = Modification Index.

7.4.6 Convergent and Discriminant Validity of Constructs

The composite reliability and the average variance extracted were used to measure the convergent validity of constructs. Constructs have convergent validity when the composite reliability exceeds the criterion of .70 (Hair, et al., 2010) and the average variance extracted is above .50 (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988).

As shown in Table 22, the composite reliability of all the variables was above .70; reliabilities were high and ranged from .89 to .97. Average variance extracted values were also above .50; they ranged from .71 to .91. Thus, all the constructs demonstrated convergent validity.

Discriminant validity was assessed by comparing the absolute value of the correlations between the constructs and the square root of the average variance extracted by a construct. When the correlations are lower than the square root of the average variance extracted by a construct, constructs are said to have discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

The findings in Table 23 reveal that the square roots of the average variance extracted for all the constructs were higher than their correlations with other constructs. Thus, all constructs had discriminant validity.

Table 22: Convergent Validity for the Constructs

Construct	Composite Reliability ¹	Average Variance Extracted ²
Positive BE	.95	.88
Negative BE	.97	.91
Brand ID	.95	.86
Brand DISID	.97	.91
Internalization	.93	.87
Symbolization	.86	.71
Helping	.94	.85
Pro-social	.92	.83
Emotion venting	.93	.83
Networking	.89	.82
CCB	.94	.82

¹ Composite reliability = (square of summation of factor loadings)/[(square of summation of factor loadings) + (summation of error)].

² Average variance extracted = (summation of the square of factor loadings)/[(summation of the square of factor loadings) + (summation of error)].

7.4.7 Common Method Bias Results

A model with a common latent factor was tested. The standardized coefficients of the indicator variables from this model were compared to the standardized coefficients of the indicator variables from the full measurement model. The differences between the standardized coefficients were then computed. Differences above .20 indicated that there was common method bias.

As show in Appendix 6, only the Pro-social, Recommend, Knowledge Sharing, and Help Other items had differences above .20. Therefore, common method bias was minimal.

Table 23: Discriminant Validity Results for the Revised Measurement Model

Construct	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1 Positive BE	.94										
2 Negative BE	-.11*	.95									
3 Symbolization	.53***	.10*	.85								
4 Brand IDF	.63***	.05	.46***	.93							
5 Brand DIIDF	-.09	.56***	.07	.09	.95						
6 Internalization	.38***	.04	.73***	.29***	-.08	.93					
7 CCB	.57***	.14**	.66***	.51***	.09	.52***	.91				
8 Helping	.36***	.28***	.40***	.38***	.25***	.36***	.60***	.92			
9 Pro-social	.41***	.25***	.49***	.40***	.22***	.46***	.58***	.80***	.87		
10 Emotion venting	.19***	.51***	.30***	.26***	.44***	.20***	.44***	.56***	.60***	.91	
11 Networking	.46***	.26***	.46***	.39***	.25***	.30***	.64***	.69***	.71***	.57***	.87

Note. The values of the square root of the average variance extracted are on the diagonal; all other entries are the correlations.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

7.4.8 Results for the Structural Model (Anti-Brand Community Only)

The results for the structural model are depicted in Figure 15 and summarized in Tables 24 and 25. The model had adequate fit as the TLI and CFI were above .90, the RMSEA was adequate at .07, the SRMR was acceptable at .05, and the Normed chi-square was below three (Table 24).

The standardized and unstandardized path coefficients are shown in Table 24 and reveal that the following paths were statistically significant:

1. Positive BE significantly predicted networking ($\beta = .26, p = .001$);
2. Negative BE significantly predicted emotion venting ($\beta = .25, p = .001$);
3. Brand IDF significantly predicted helping ($\beta = .20, p = .05$) and pro-social ($\beta = .24, p = .001$);
4. Brand DIIDF significantly predicted helping ($\beta = .20, p = .05$) and emotion venting ($\beta = .30, p = .001$);
5. Internalization significantly predicted helping ($\beta = .57, p = .001$), pro-social ($\beta = .64, p = .001$), emotion venting ($\beta = .35, p = .001$), and networking ($\beta = .15, p = .001$);
6. Positive BE ($\beta = .22, p = .01$), helping ($\beta = .37, p = .001$), emotion venting ($\beta = .16, p = .05$), networking ($\beta = .24, p = .001$), and symbolization ($\beta = .23, p = .05$) significantly predicted CCB.

Figure 16 is the final structural model of results for online anti-brand community participation.

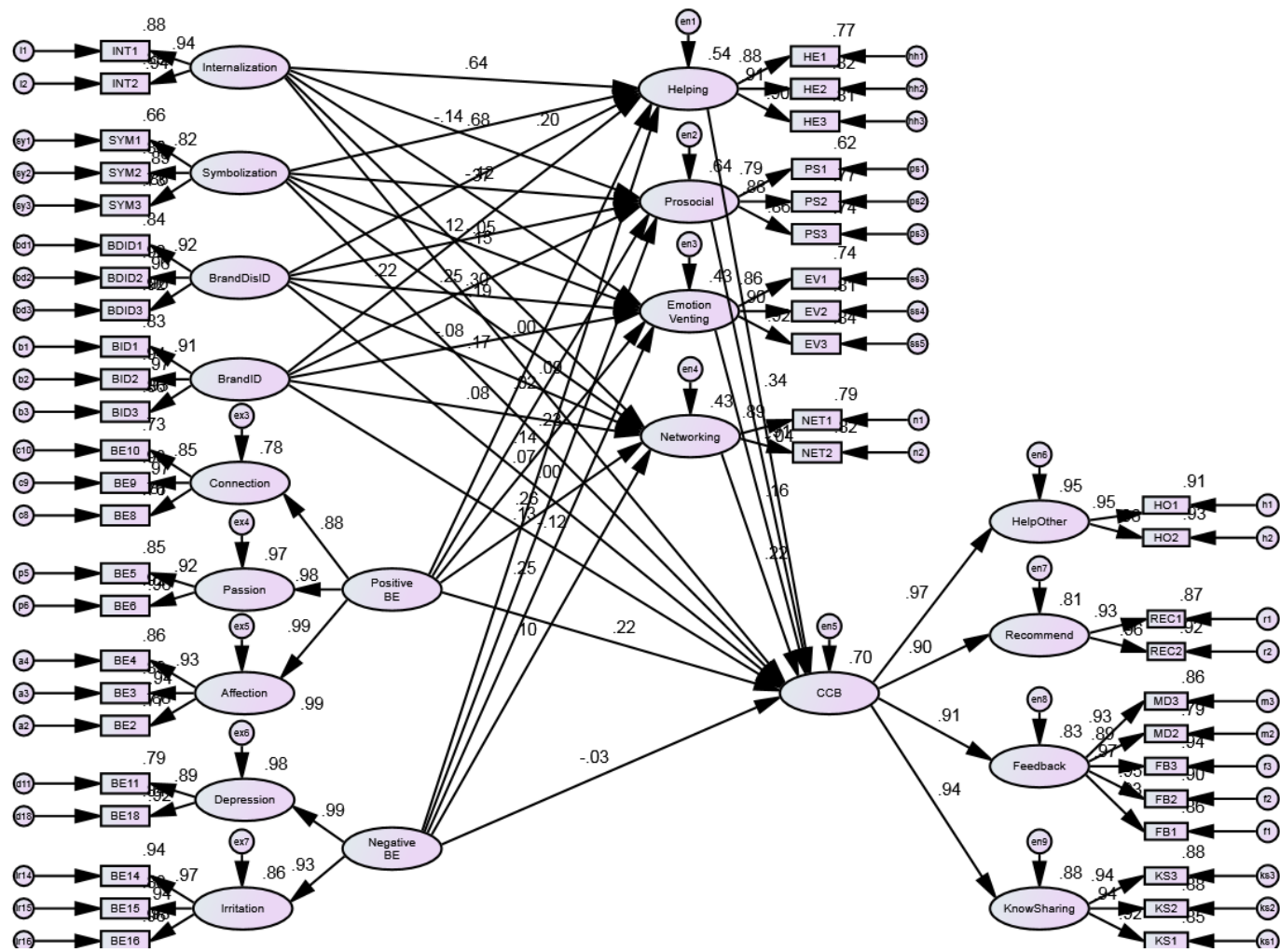


Figure 15: Standardized Path Coefficients for the Proposed Structural Model within the Anti-brand Community

Table 24: Chi-square Results and Goodness of Fit Indices for the Proposed Structure Model (Anti-Brand Community)

Index	Value
Chi-square	2023.85
Degrees of freedom	977.00
Sig.	.00
Normed chi-square (chi-square/df)	2.07
Tucker-Lewis index (TLI)	.91
Comparative fit index (CFI)	.92
Root mean squared error (RMSEA)	.07
Lower bound of 90 percent confidence interval	.07
Upper bound of 90 percent confidence interval	.08
Standardized root mean square residual (SRMR)	.06

Table 25: Unstandardized and Standardized Path Coefficients of the Proposed Structure Model (Anti-Brand Community)

Path	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>
Positive BE to:				
Helping	.02	.10	.01	.17
Pro-social	.03	.09	.02	.32
Emotion venting	.21	.12	.15	1.73
Networking	.32	.11	.26	3.00 **
Negative BE to:				
Helping	.07	.08	.07	.92
Pro-social	.13	.07	.13	1.85
Emotion venting	.30	.10	.25	3.04 **
Networking	.10	.08	.10	1.22
Brand IDF to:				
Helping	.21	.10	.20	2.23 *
Pro-social	.24	.09	.24	2.77 **
Emotion venting	-.12	.12	-.09	-.97
Networking	.08	.10	.08	.78

Brand DIIDF to:				
Helping	.18	.07	.20	2.50 *
Pro-social	.11	.07	.12	1.59
Emotion venting	.33	.09	.30	3.54 ***
Networking	.15	.08	.17	1.93
Internalization to:				
Helping	.53	.09	.57	5.69 ***
Pro-social	.57	.09	.64	6.45 ***
Emotion venting	.39	.11	.35	3.38 ***
Networking	.14	.10	.15	1.40 ***
Symbolization to:				
Helping	-.07	.13	-.06	-.51
Pro-social	-.08	.12	-.07	-.64
Emotion venting	-.03	.16	-.02	-.16
Networking	.23	.14	.20	1.65
Positive BE to CCB	.25	.08	.22	3.18 **
Negative BE to CCB	-.03	.06	-.03	-.46
Brand IDF to CCB	-.13	.08	-.12	-1.66
Brand DIIDF to CCB	-.00	.06	-.00	-.06
Helping to CCB	.35	.09	.37	4.09 ***
Pro-social to CCB	-.08	.11	-.08	-.73
Emotion venting to CCB	.13	.05	.16	2.50 *
Networking to CCB	.23	.06	.24	3.70 ***
Internalization to CCB	-.09	.09	.10	.96
Symbolization to CCB	.25	.10	.23	2.46 *

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

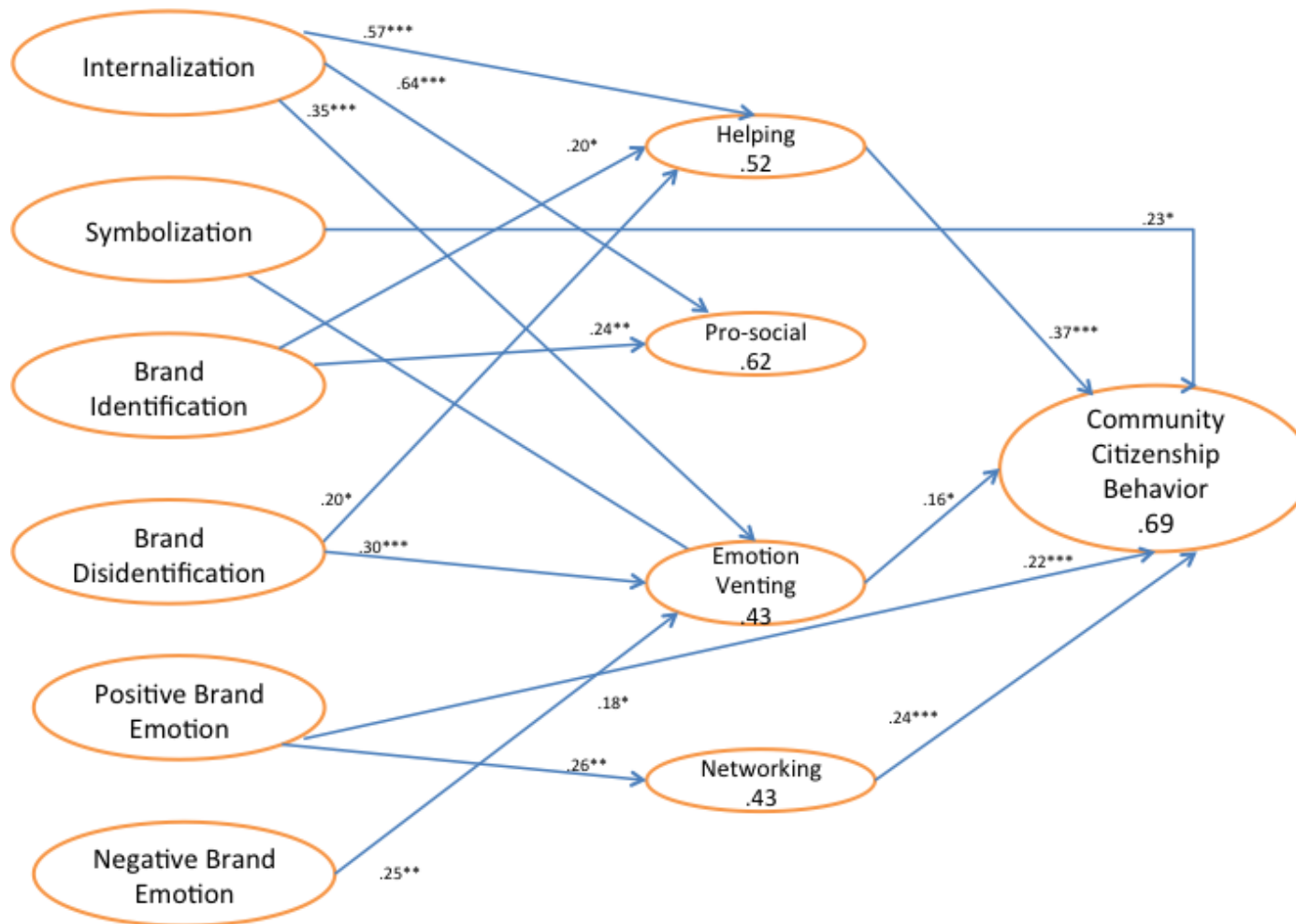


Figure 16: Result Model of Antecedents and Consequences of Online Anti-brand Community Participation

7.4.9 Results for the Structural Model (Brand Community Only)

The results for the structural model are depicted in Figure 17 and summarized in Tables 26 and 27. The model had adequate fit, as the TLI and CFI were above .90, the RMSEA was adequate at .07, the SRMR was acceptable at .07, and the Normed chi-square was below three.

1. The standardized and unstandardized path coefficients are shown in Table 26 and reveal that the following paths were statistically significant:
 - a. Positive BE significantly predicted helping ($\beta = .53, p = .001$), pro-social ($\beta = .51, p = .001$), emotion venting ($\beta = .28, p = .001$) and networking ($\beta = .53, p = .001$);
 - b. Negative BE significantly predicted helping ($\beta = .14, p = .05$), emotion venting ($\beta = .31, p = .001$) and networking ($\beta = .16, p = .01$);
 - c. Brand IDF significantly predicted emotion venting ($\beta = .19, p = .01$);
 - d. Brand DIIDF significantly predicted networking ($\beta = .14, p = .05$) and emotion venting ($\beta = .18, p = .001$);
 - e. Brand IDF ($\beta = .25, p = .001$), helping ($\beta = .42, p = .001$), pro-social ($\beta = -.21, p = .05$), networking ($\beta = .22, p = .001$) and symbolization ($\beta = .45, p = .001$), and significantly predicted CCB.

Figure 18 is the final structural model of results of online brand community participation.

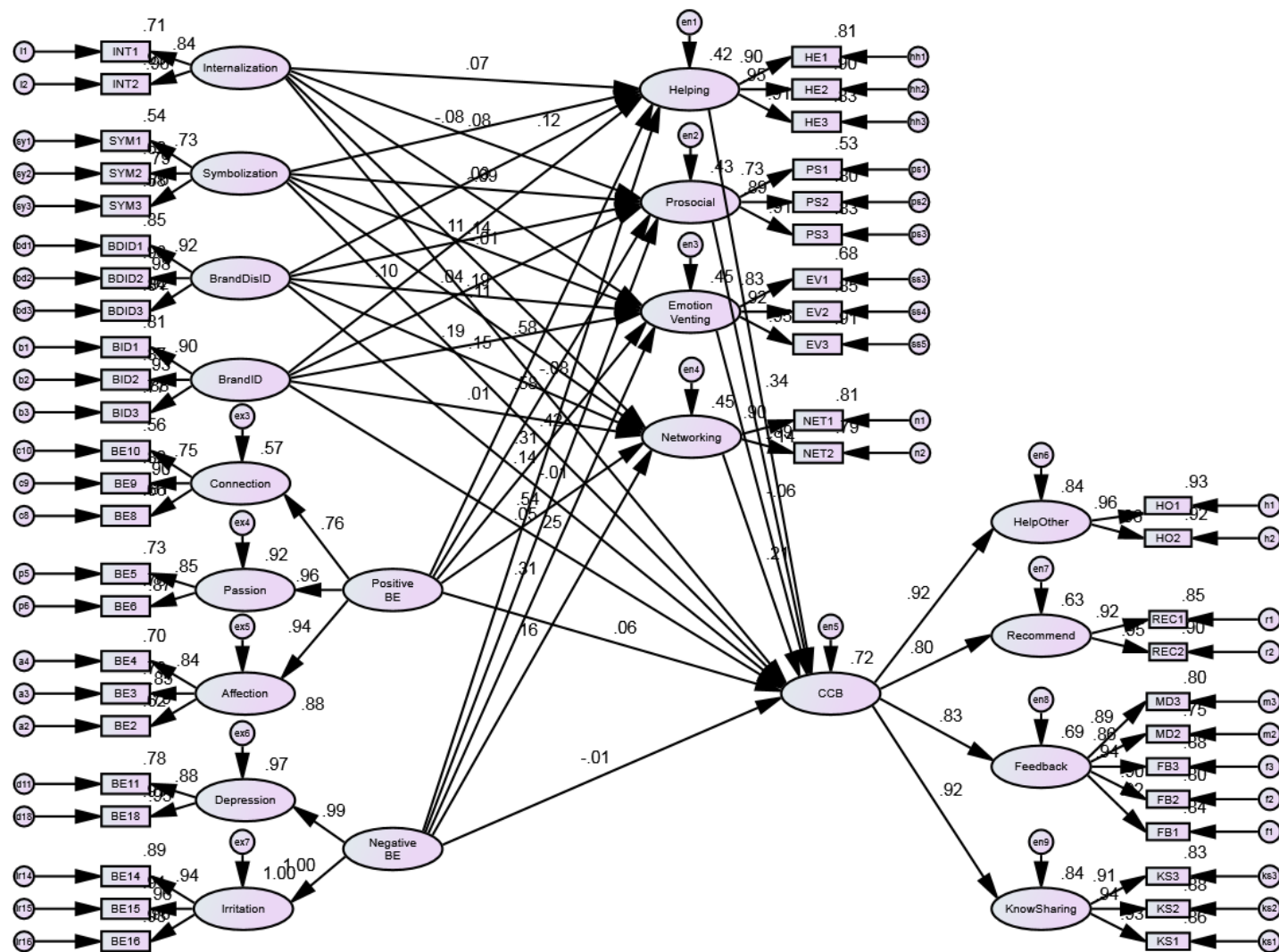


Figure 17: Standardized Path Coefficients for the Proposed Structural Model within the Brand Community

Table 26: Chi-square Results and Goodness of Fit Indices for the Proposed Structural Model (Brand Community)

Index	Value
Chi-square	2119.66
Degrees of freedom	977.00
Sig.	.00
Normed chi-square (chi-square/df)	2.17
Tucker-Lewis index (TLI)	.90
Comparative fit index (CFI)	.91
Root mean squared error (RMSEA)	.07
Lower bound of 90 percent confidence interval	.06
Upper bound of 90 percent confidence interval	.07
Standardized root mean square residual (SRMR)	.07

Table 27: Unstandardized and Standardized Path Coefficients of the Proposed Structural Model (Brand Community)

Path	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>
Positive BE to:				
Helping	.96	.18	.53	5.39 ***
Pro-social	.83	.17	.51	4.96 ***
Emotion venting	.56	.17	.28	3.22 ***
Networking	1.07	.20	.53	5.32 ***
Negative BE to:				
Helping	.15	.06	.14	2.39 *
Pro-social	.05	.06	.06	.91
Emotion venting	.37	.07	.31	5.49 ***
Networking	.20	.07	.16	2.73 **
Brand IDF to:				
Helping	.13	.08	.11	1.60
Pro-social	.07	.07	.07	.97
Emotion venting	.25	.08	.19	2.97 **
Networking	.02	.09	.02	.23
Brand DIIDF to:				
Helping	.14	.07	.11	1.90
Pro-social	.11	.07	.10	1.67

Emotion venting	.24	.08	.18	3.19 ***
Networking	.20	.08	.14	2.40 *
Internalization to:				
Helping	.04	.10	.03	.37
Pro-social	-.04	.09	.04	.44
Emotion venting	-.14	.11	-.11	-1.36
Networking	-.03	.11	-.03	-.31
Symbolization to:				
Helping	-.01	.16	-.01	-.05
Pro-social	.15	.14	.12	1.06
Self-benefit	.28	.16	.18	1.71
Networking	.23	.17	.15	1.30
Positive BE to CCB	.10	.15	.06	.62
Negative BE to CCB	-.02	.05	-.02	-.31
Brand IDF to CCB	.27	.06	.25	4.38 ***
Brand DIIDF to CCB	-.02	.06	-.02	-.31
Helping to CCB	.37	.08	.42	4.77 ***
Pro-social to CCB	-.21	.09	-.21	-2.32 *
Emotion venting to CCB	-.05	.05	-.07	-1.10
Networking to CCB	.18	.05	.22	3.37 ***
Internalization to CCB	-.09	.08	-.09	-1.22
Symbolization to CCB	.56	.13	.45	4.42 ***

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

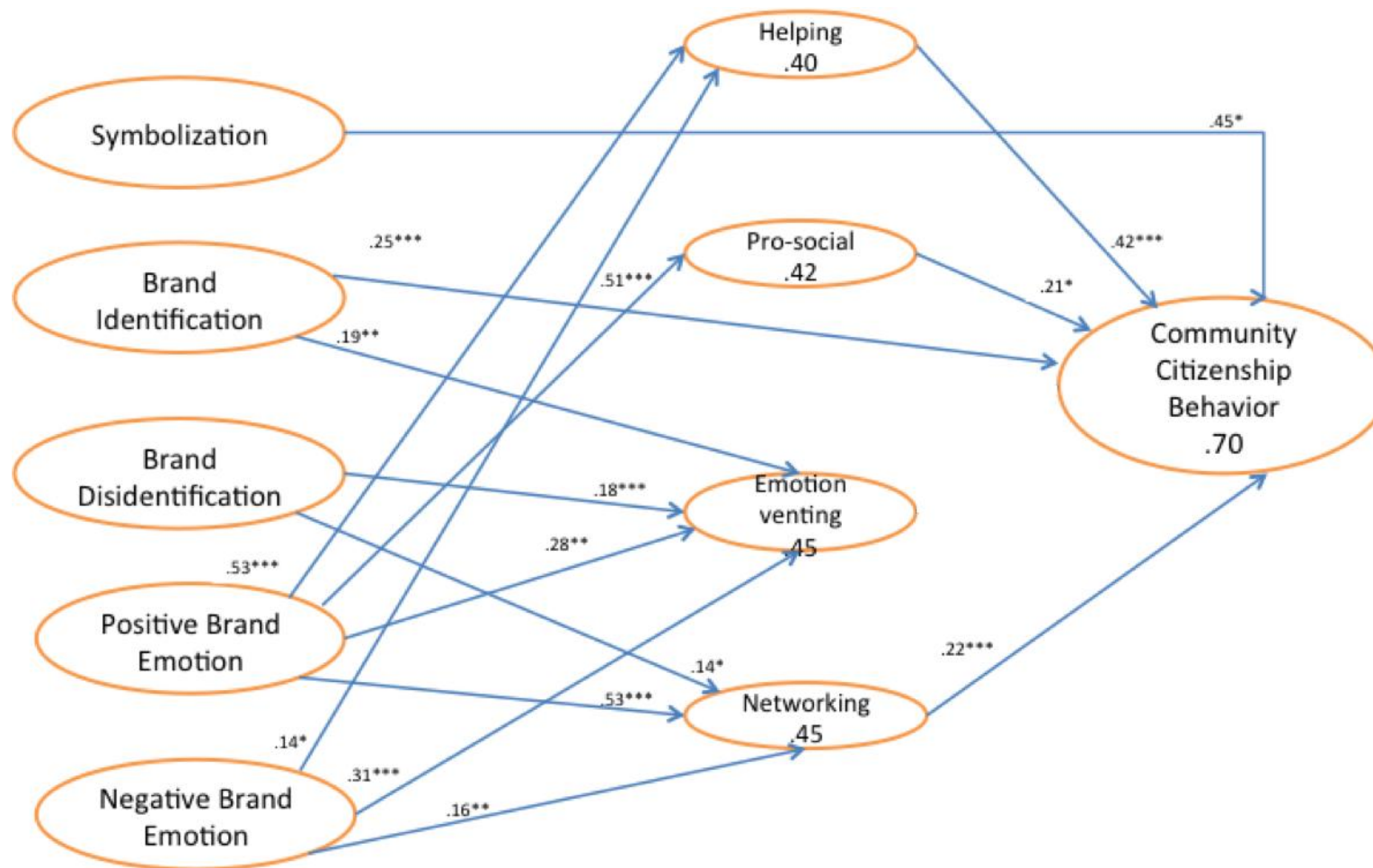


Figure 18: Result Model of Antecedents and Consequences of Online Brand Community Participation

7.4.10 Results for the Multi-Group Analyses for Differences across the Communities

The difference between the coefficients was taken. The z-scores for the differences are summarized in Table 28 and reveal that the following relationships varied significantly across type of community:

1. The relationship between Positive BE and Helping differed across communities, $z = -2.53, p < .05$. Within the Anti-Brand community, Positive BE did not significantly predict Helping. But within the Brand community, Positive BE positively and significantly predicted Helping, $\beta = .53, p = .001$.
2. The relationship between Positive BE and Pro-social differed across communities, $z = -2.55, p < .05$. Within the Anti-Brand community, Positive BE did not significantly predict Pro-social. But within the Brand community, Positive BE positively and significantly predicted Pro-social, $\beta = .51, p = .001$.
3. The relationship between Brand IDF and Emotion Venting differed across communities, $z = -2.19, p < .05$. Within the Anti-Brand community, Brand IDF did not significantly predict Emotion Venting. But within the Brand community, Brand IDF positively and significantly predicted Emotion Venting, $\beta = .19, p = .001$.
4. The relationship between Internalization and Helping differed across communities, $z = 4.01, p < .001$. Within the Anti-Brand community, Internalization positively and significantly predicted Helping, $\beta = .57, p = .001$. But within the Brand community, Internalization did not significantly predict Helping.

5. The relationship between Internalization and Pro-social differed across communities, $z = 4.71$, $p < .001$. Within the Anti-Brand community, Internalization positively and significantly predicted Pro-social, $\beta = .64$, $p = .001$. But within the Brand community, Internalization did not significantly predict Pro-social.
6. The relationship between Internalization and Emotion Venting differed across communities, $z = 2.96$, $p < .01$. Within the Anti-Brand community, Internalization positively and significantly predicted Emotion Venting, $\beta = .35$, $p = .001$. But within the Brand community, Internalization did not significantly predict Emotion Venting.
7. The relationship between Brand IDF and CCB differed across communities, $z = -3.70$, $p < .001$. Within the Anti-Brand community, Brand IDF did not significantly predict CCB. But within the Brand community, Brand IDF positively predicted CCB, $\beta = .25$, $p = .001$.
8. The relationship between Emotion Venting and CCB differed across communities, $z = 3.25$, $p < .01$. Within the Anti-Brand community, Emotion Venting positively and significantly predicted CCB, $\beta = .16$, $p = .05$. But within the Brand community, Emotion Venting did not significantly predict CCB.

Table 28: Standardized Coefficients within the Brand and Anti-Brand Communities

	Anti-Brand		Brand		
Path	β	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>SE</i>	<i>z</i>
Positive BE to:					
Helping	.01	.10	.53 ***	.18	-2.53 *
Pro-social	.02	.09	.51 ***	.17	-2.55 *
Emotion venting	.15	.12	.28 ***	.17	-.62
Networking	.26 **	.11	.53 ***	.20	-1.18
Negative BE to:					
Helping	.07	.08	.14 *	.06	-.70
Pro-social	.13	.07	.06	.06	.76
Emotion venting	.25 **	.10	.31 ***	.07	-.49
Networking	.10	.08	.16	.07	-.56
Brand IDF to:					
Helping	.20 *	.10	.11	.08	.70
Pro-social	.24 **	.09	.07	.07	1.49
Emotion venting	-.09	.12	.19 **	.08	-2.19 *
Networking	.08	.10	.02	.09	.45
Brand DIIDF to:					
Helping	.20 *	.07	.11	.07	.91
Pro-social	.12	.07	.10	.07	.20
Emotion venting	.30 ***	.09	.18 ***	.08	1.00
Networking	.17	.08	.14 *	.08	.27
Internalization to:					
Helping	.57 ***	.09	.03	.10	4.01 ***
Pro-social	.64 ***	.09	.04	.09	4.71 ***
Emotion venting	.35 ***	.11	-.11	.11	2.96 **
Networking	.15	.10	-.03	.11	1.21

Path	Anti-Brand		Brand		z
	β	SE	β	SE	
Symbolization to:					
Helping	-.06	.13	-.01	.16	-.24
Pro-social	-.07	.12	.12	.14	-1.03
Emotion venting	-.02	.16	.18	.16	-.88
Networking	.20	.14	.15	.17	.23
Positive BE to CCB	.22 **	.08	.06	.15	.94
Negative BE to CCB	-.03	.06	-.02	.05	-.13
Brand IDF to CCB	-.12	.08	.25 ***	.06	-3.70 ***
Brand DIIDF to CCB	-.00	.06	-.02	.06	.24
Helping to CCB	.37 ***	.09	.42 ***	.08	-.42
Pro-social to CCB	-.08	.11	-.21 *	.09	.91
Emotion venting to CCB	.16 *	.05	-.07	.05	3.25 **
Networking to CCB	.24 **	.06	.22 ***	.05	.26
Internalization to CCB	.10 *	.09	-.09 ***	.08	1.58
Symbolization to CCB	.23	.10	.45	.13	-1.34

Note. $\Delta\chi^2$ is between the model where a single path was constrained and the unconstrained model.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

The resulting structural models for online brand group (Figure 16) and online anti-brand group (Figure 18) present the relationships among the constructs in the model.

7.5 Summary

The constructs presented in the previous chapters were tested for model fit, followed by convergent and discriminant validity, common method bias, testing of mediating effect and path differences across the online brand community and online anti-brand community.

Results of the confirmatory factor analysis and fit indices demonstrate good model fit. The reliability and validity tests showed that the structural models are insufficient evidence of reliability, convergent and discriminant validity.

Of the 34 hypotheses proposed in Chapter 6 for both the online brand community and online anti-brand community conceptual models, 15 different hypotheses were supported in the online brand community and online anti-brand community result models (Figure 16 & 18). In the multi-group analysis, 8 significant path differences were identified across the online brand community and online anti-brand community groups (Table 28). The results of this chapter will be discussed in the next chapter in details.

Chapter 8: Discussion

8.1 Introduction

Chapter 7 has reported the detailed results of hypothesis testing of the measurement models of online brand community and online anti-brand community, and has followed by highlighting the significant path differences of online brand and online anti-brand community participation models.

This chapter now extends the results with the theoretical underpinnings, relating them back to the research questions set out at the beginning of the thesis, to understand the impact, similarities and differences of various identities, brand emotion and motives on online brand and anti-brand community citizenship behavior.

The discussion of the resulting model of online brand community participation and online anti-brand community participation answers the first half of the research statement of the problem regarding the factors and outcomes of online brand and anti-brand community participation.

The discussion of the results of the significant path difference meanwhile shed light on answering the second half of the research statement of the problem regarding the differences between consumers' participation in these two types of community. Finally, the chapter closes with a discussion of the theoretical contributions.

8.2 Online Brand Community Participation

8.2.1 Identity

Social identity theory hypothesizes that people categorize themselves into different groups and share common characteristics, based on individual and collective group attributes, which are moral identification and brand identification and brand identification in this study (Shen et al., 2010, Tajfel and Turner, 1979, Verbos et al., 2007).

Since the emergence of virtual community, there has been discussions and research to make sense of the nature of virtual community versus offline community (Bagozzi and Dholakia, 2002, Donath, 1999, Rheingold, 2000). The current study complements the previous studies about offline single and multiple identities to investigate the existence of multiple identities and their different levels of impact in the virtual and online environment (Stets and Harrod, 2004).

First, in terms of moral identification, internalization, the private dimension of moral identification did not have a significant relationship with all motives and community citizenship behavior. This negative result may be due to the hedonic nature of online brand communities for chosen global brands. Their objectives and setup will not arouse awareness of the participants' inner moral self.

For symbolization, the public dimension of this has a positive impact on community citizenship behavior in online brand community. Symbolization projects the outward moral self-schema through one's explicit actions to exhibit one's moral value. It triggers the participants' moral responsibility to maintain the prosperity of the community in terms of the sense of belonging and commitment, supporting the users through moderation, recommendation, and provision of insightful input (Muniz and O'Guinn, 2001, Shao et al., 2008). Open endorsement from like-minded people in the community could also reinforce such an explicit dimension of moral identity for

continual commitment to the community (Reynolds and Ceranic, 2007, Winterich et al., 2013).

Second, brand community is formed to link the brand followers together on their consumption experience and opinion about a brand (Muniz and O'Guinn (2001). Brand identification in this study demonstrates positive impact on some typical extra-role or voluntary community citizenship behavior in online and also offline community (Homburg et al., 2009a). Internet users join an online brand community, which is the source of social cues and symbol to seek for identity of "we-ness" and "consciousness of kind" (Lam et al., 2013, Szmigin and Reppel, 2004). During in-depth interviews with the directors from social media agencies, they mention that the key members contribute their effort voluntarily and help the like-minded people in many ways to maintain the wellbeing and sustainability of the community.

Brand identification also plays a role in regulating the resultant emotional reactions to psychological oneness in the brand community (Ahearne et al, 2005, Lam et al., 2012). Brand identification provokes the motive of emotion venting within the community to express their negative feeling or encounter about the brand, in order to maintain a distinctive level of expectation of brand personality congruent to their identity to the brand (Kuenzel and Halliday, 2008).

Third, the study shows that brand disidentification leads to motive of emotion venting in an online brand community as a result of counter-organization attitude (Bhattacharya and Elsbach, 2002). A similar phenomenon has been found in the brand opponents sharing negative word-of-mouth message in rival brand communities as a means to support their favoured brands (Hickman and Ward, 2007, Thompson and Sinha, 2008).

The findings of the qualitative research also reveal that some respondents join an anti-community when they notice that their peers join it to seek peer recognition (e.g., via

friends' posting in Facebook). They wish to identify themselves as in-group among the peer through participation to the anti-community (Englis and Solomon, 1997). This explains why brand disidentification will lead to a networking motive.

8.2.2 Brand Emotion

Past literature mainly from psychology has indicated that emotion is related to motivation and action as a result of its impact on thought and behavior (Izard, 2013). People with strong emotion to an object tend to exhibit higher level of attachment to it to maintain proximity to it (Thomson et al., 2005). This supports the result that positive brand emotion triggers the motives of helping, pro-social, emotion venting and networking in an online brand community.

As a matter of fact, online brand community consists of multiple stakeholders who participate in the community with different purposes and opinions (Vallaster and von Wallpach, 2013). Brand opponents may also co-exist in an online brand community to support, express their dissatisfaction and network with other like-minded people.

Negative emotions also demonstrate a connection and intention of engagement to sustain the relationship (Romani et al., 2013). As such, negative brand emotion triggers the motives of helping, emotion venting and networking with like-minded people in the online brand community (Malär et al., 2011).

8.2.3 Motives

The motives of pro-social, helping, emotion venting and networking are found to contribute positive to community citizenship behavior in online anti-brand community. The pro-social motive is an important source of moral motivation for online community participation in terms of voluntary pro-social behavior namely, knowledge sharing, responsibility to others and social support to the in-group members which are key elements of community citizenship behavior (Derks et al., 2008, Finkelstein, 2011, Huang et al., 2009, Thomas et al., 2009).

Fundamentally, the helping motive is considered as another-related motive for maintaining interpersonal connectivity within a community. In Dholakia et al. (2004) and Wang and Fesenmaier's (2004) models of online community participation, they proposed that helping, as an altruistic virtue, motivates people to exercise voluntary community citizenship behavior, such as helping others, recommendation, knowledge sharing, willingness to moderate and providing feedback in an online community (Giacalone and Rosenfeld, 2013, Groth, 2005).

An online community provides a 24/7 platform for users to share their negative experience with other users for emotional and function support for reconciliation with the brand and expectation for improvement (Delzen, 2014, Joireman et al., 2013, Thomson et al., 2012).

Networking is a fundamental function of community for maintaining interpersonal interconnectivity and fulfilling social needs for social support, sharing friendship and intimacy within a community (Dholakia et al., 2004, Wang and Fesenmaier, 2004, Wiertz and de Ruyter, 2007). This study shows that the networking motive has significant impact on voluntary citizenship behavior to assist the integration of the participants to maintain active content and a conducive environment for social networking building (Nambisan and Baron, 2007, Madupu and Cooley, 2012).

8.3 Online Anti-brand Community Participation

The result model of online anti-brand community participation provides a new perspective of people's participation behavior in this alternative type of brand community. The findings also demonstrate the multi-purpose nature of online anti-brand community for different stakeholders, such as activists, brand supporters, brand opponents and peer groups to address different topics of interest in the communities. For example, some brand supporters join together to voice their dissatisfaction about the brand for constructive and reconciliation purpose. Brand opponents join as a result of new social movement to fight against the wrongdoings of a brand for revenge and destructive purpose (Joireman et al., 2013, Vallaster and von Wallpach, 2013).

The qualitative study has also identified that some people join anti- community activities such as flash mob as a result of self-importance of freedom of expression and equality of opportunity. Some users join an online anti-brand community simply by accepting invitations from peers for fun or just want to be seen to be cool by like-minded peers (Grant, 2014). A recent study about positively- versus negatively-valenced brand engagement in online anti-brand community reminds us of the potential level difference in identity, emotion and motive from cognitive, emotional and behavioral perspectives in online brand versus anti-brand communities (Leventhal et al., 2014).

8.3.1 Identity

Multiple identities are also revealed in the model of online anti-brand community participation.

First, anti-brand community emerges as a social community to allow participants with moral obligation to mobilize collective effort to voice out their social irresponsibility and brand hegemony within the marketplace (Awasthi et al., 2012, Hollenbeck and Zinkhan, 2010a). Internationalization, the implicit and private dimension of moral identification reveals the moral traits that are central to a person's self-concept.

Many anti-brand communities are set up to seek social benefits and to address social injustice relating to the misbehavior of an organization. This study shows the consistent result that internationalization reinforces pro-social motive and to promote pro-social discussion and action within the online anti-brand community as a consequence of moral and collective unity (Kozinets and Handelman, 2004, Palmer et al., 2014, van Troost et al., 2013). Internalization also triggers the motive of helping in an online anti-brand community to support the like-minded users, for example to help new users to find the relevant information they want (Cova and White, 2010).

Protesters in an online anti-brand community identify themselves as elites or crusaders. They make use of the community to blame the brand as the immoral one in response to the betrayal experience from the brand (Ward and Ostrom, 2006). Internalization drives the users to share the evidence of a brand's social irresponsibility in the community through the motive of emotion venting (Grappi et al., 2013). Symbolization, the expressive dimension of moral identification also projects such a quality outwardly through motive of emotion venting to express their attitude to the brand for recognition with like-minded people and emotion release purpose (Verhagen et al., 2013). Such an explicit dimension of moral identity also provides a direct impetus for community citizenship behavior in "safeguarding the image of a community, to resolve conflicts, and to create a harmonious community" (p. 203) (Chen et al., 2010).

Second, in terms of brand identity, anti-brand community is found to play an active role as alternative market agent to ask for review and change of corporations' brand identity (Krishnamurthy and Kucuk, 2015). People who identify themselves with a certain brand join the online anti-brand community to voice their concern about the brand. Such a quality would also elicit both the motives of pro-social and helping in the community for assisting the users and addressing the social irresponsibility of the corporations.

Third, Bhattacharya and Elbach's (2002) research has demonstrated that identification and disidentification have had an impact on behavior in the offline environment. They concluded that identification is pertinent to personal experiences whereas disidentification is related to one's values surrounding the organization. Brand disidentification also demonstrates asymmetric and different results to motives and community citizenship behavior in the online brand and anti-brand community.

Brand disidentification triggers the motive of emotion venting as a result of the users' reaction to their disagreement to the values from the organization. Having said this, both brand identification and disidentification have demonstrated a positive impact on motive of helping, which could be explained by the users' in-group recognition of the brand they want to identify or disidentify with (Iyengar et al., 2012, Ren et al., 2012).

8.3.2 Brand Emotion

Some users participate in an online anti-brand community because they seek peer recognition. Although these users may show positive brand emotion towards a certain brand, they would join anti-brand community for networking purposes to fulfil hedonic needs (Dholakia et al., 2004, Grant, 2014, Wang and Fesenmaier, 2004). This explains the significant impact of positive brand emotion to motive of networking.

The advancement of Web 2.0 technology in social media has enabled the participation and co-creation of different brand meanings among multiple stakeholders (Vallaster and von Wallpach, 2013). Some consumers take constructive punitive action by sharing social irresponsibility of brand owners in online anti-brand communities with a reconciliation expectation for sustaining a relationships with the brand (Romani et al., 2013). This illustrates the finding that positive brand emotion contributes to positive community citizenship behavior in online anti-brand community (Joireman et al., 2013)

For stakeholders with negative brand emotion to the brand, some recent research has indicated its direct intention to spread negative word-of-mouth for venting emotions by sharing online with other 'victims' (Hidalgo et al., 2015, Sarkar et al., 2015, Verhagen et al., 2013). These results provide support for the direct impact of negative brand emotion on the motive of emotion venting.

8.3.3 Motives

Similar to the online brand community, the motive of helping plays a significant and direct role in triggering voluntary community citizenship behavior in mobilizing members to help each other, share knowledge, and provide feedback and recommendations.

As a commonplace for the public to voice out their dissatisfaction to a brand, the significant impact of the emotion venting motive on community citizenship behavior has demonstrated its positive role in driving the participants' contribution to the community.

Interestingly, unlike the online brand community, the motive of pro-social does not show a direct impact on community citizenship behavior. In the result model, the motive of pro-social is triggered by brand identification. This could be due to the fact that participants who identify with the brand join online anti-brand community for short-term expression of their dissatisfaction to the wrongdoings of a brand.

As such, they may not be prepared to support the long-term behavior of a community which conflicts with one's long-term goal of seeking the feeling of 'we-ness' and 'consciousness of kind' with the like-minded people in a community (Szmigin and Reppel, 2004).

8.4 Different Participation Behavior in Online (Anti-)Brand Community

The second part of the statement of the problem for this thesis involves the differences between consumer participation in the online brand and online anti-brand communities.

Multi-group analysis was performed to find out the following significant path differences between online brand and anti-brand community participation (Table 29).

Table 29: Summary of Significant Path Between Online Brand and Anti-Brand Community Models

No.	Construct Relationship	Online Brand Community	Online Anti-brand Community
1c	Brand ID → CCB	+ (Supported)	- (Not supported)
3c	Emotion Venting → CCB	+ (Not supported)	+ (Supported)
4a	Internalization → Helping	+ (Not supported)	+ (Supported)
4b	Internalization → Pro-social	+ (Not supported)	+ (Supported)
4c	Internalization → Emotion Venting	+ (Not supported)	+ (Supported)
5c	Brand ID → Emotion Venting	+ (Supported)	+ (Not supported)
6a	Positive BE → Helping	+ (Supported)	+ (Not supported)
6b	Positive BE → Pro-social	+ (Supported)	+ (Not supported)

8.4.1 Online Brand Community

The above results have further illustrated the asymmetrical role of multiple identities in different scenario (Balmer and Greyser, 2002, Bhattacharya and Elsbach, 2002, Foreman and Whetten, 2002, He and John, 2007, Palmer et al., 2014, Shen et al., 2010). In online brand community, brand identification plays a significant role in emotion venting. Users are prone to express their ‘true self’ by sharing their real value and identities with in-group members in online brand community (Tosun, 2012).

Moreover, brand community identify has demonstrated resisting power to negative impact (e.g., negative word-of-mouth) to the brand (Chang et al., 2013). As such, some stakeholders with high brand identification in the online brand community are open to vent their emotion about the brand for improvement and reconciliation instead of expressing revenge and resentment for breakup with the brand (Joireman et al., 2013). This explains the significant impact of brand identification to emotion venting.

Brand identification emerges as a significant predictor of community citizenship behavior in online brand community, but not in online anti-brand community. This may be explained by the role of brand identification as a basic requirement of a good soldier in the online brand community to develop the strength of a community, safeguard its image and create a harmonious environment (Chen et al., 2010, Groth, 2005).

Positive brand emotion shows a significant impact on helping and pro-social motives in an online brand community, but not online anti-brand community. In Langner et al.'s (2015) study about the nature of interpersonal love emotion and brand love emotion, the results illustrate that emotion towards brand love is more rational than interpersonal love emotion. This could imply that positive brand emotion has a stronger association with rational attitude and behavior (Langner et al., 2015, Taylor-Gooby, 2012).

8.4.2 Online Anti-brand Community

A key focus of an online anti-brand community is on addressing social injustice through disapproval of corporation action as a result of global anti-branding movement. Online anti-brand brand communities have drawn like-minded people's collective identities to protest against brands for social irresponsibility issues and sharing negative word-of-mouth (Aksoy et al., 2013, Farshid et al., 2015, Hollenbeck and Zinkhan, 2010, Krishnamurthy and Kucuk, 2015).

The significant path difference of internalization to motive of helping, pro-social and emotion venting in online anti-brand community has shed further light on and echoes the nature of online anti-brand community as a platform to draw collective identities of multi-stakeholders in the society to resort complaints and social irresponsibility of a brand (Farshid et al., 2015, Krishnamurthy and Kucuk, 2015, Krishnamurthy and Kucuk, 2009, Hollenbeck and Zinkhan, 2010a). The anti-brand activities trigger the consumers' self-image of moral character in terms of willpower, integrity and moral desire to help and push for the development of moral community by helping like-minded people to be familiarized with the group, carryout pro-social ideas and behavior, and address the mistakes of an organization through emotion venting (Rupp et al., 2011, Rupp et al., 2013, Shao et al., 2008, Winterich et al., 2013a).

With respect to emotional venting, recent research has shown that it can lead to benefits such as emotional recovery and social integration (Nils and Rimé, 2012). The significant path of emotion venting motive to community citizenship behavior in online anti-brand community further illustrates the sustaining power of emotion venting motive in anti-brand community in inducing the participants to commit to the community as a good soldiers to support the effective functioning of anti-brand community (Groth, 2005).

8.5 Theoretical Contributions

This research proposes an integrated model to create new knowledge and deepen understanding of consumers' online brand community behavior from interdisciplinary perspectives. This research contributes to an emergent social research area in members' motives of participation and voluntary contribution within online brand and anti-brand communities.

Fundamentally, this research addresses the following six central areas: (1) theory building for online brand community and anti-brand community behavior, (2) an extended model of goal-directed online behavior, (3) operationalization of motives and community citizenship behavior for online community participation, (4) deepening understanding of social identity theory in multiple identities online environment, (5) extension of organizational citizenship behavior in online context, and (6) adoption of brand emotion in consumer behavior study.

8.5.1. Theory Building for Online Brand and Anti-brand Community Behavior

The main survey empirically tested identity theories (i.e., moral identification, brand identification and brand dis-identification) together with brand emotion, community citizenship behavior and motives to explain online brand and anti-brand community participation behavior. Essentially, the resulting models of online brand and anti-brand community have demonstrated the asymmetric relationships of the same constructs in these two models.

The discussion chapter has revealed the differences that are likely come from the different functions of these two kinds of community. As such, each type of community appeals to specific stakeholders with different priorities of identities, motives, emotions and purposes of joining an online community. This has illustrated the possible dynamics of multiple stakeholders in an online environment and the lack of homogeneity of participants in the online brand and anti-brand communities.

Apart from the discovery of the above online behavior, the significant and consistent results of the developed constructs and relationship have enhanced not only the generalizability of the previous theories and findings, but also their applicability in the online environment (Creswell, 2009).

So far, the knowledge about anti-brand behavior is rather limited. This study answers recent calls to apply insights from the social science literature to make better sense of consumers' reaction to the misconduct of a brand and extreme forms of consumer activism (i.e., anti-brand community participation) through a review of contemporary theories relating to anti-brand behavior (e.g., new social movement, framing, hegemony) and a testing of the online anti-brand community participation model (Bhattacharya et al., 2009, Hollenbeck and Zinkhan, 2010b, Smith et al., 2010).

8.5.2 An Extension of Model of Goal-directed Behavior in Virtual Community

Bagozzi and Dholakia's (2006) Model of Goal-directed Behavior proposed to explain people's intention and behavior in behavioral science. The result models of online brand community participation and anti-brand community participation are built upon the model of goal-directed behavior to expand and test its generalizability in the online community context. The result models have illustrated that social identity (i.e., moral identification, brand identification and brand disidentification), positive and negative emotion (i.e., positive and negative brand emotion) and desires (i.e., motives) evoke different impacts on behavior (i.e., community citizenship behavior).

This study has responded to the need to broaden explanation within the model of goal-directed behavior, and has explained how the new concept of motives was transformed with multiple identities and brand emotion into a community behavior.

8.5.3 Operationalization of Motives and Community Citizenship Behavior for Online Community Participation

As of now, most research about online community participation is either qualitative or quantitative by using established constructs, which are originally for measuring people's offline behavior. In order to understand people's purpose of joining the invisible online community, the motives of online community participation and community citizenship behavior have been identified in the qualitative study to respond to such needs. This research has successfully and empirically tested the measurement scales of motive and community citizenship behavior to understand their relations with multiple identities, brand emotion and community citizenship behavior to demonstrate its operationalization in online behavior research, to better explain people's online behavior.

8.5.4 Deepening Understanding of Social Identity Theory in Multiple Identities Online Environment

The findings of this study show how moral identification, brand identification and brand dis-identification interact with other factors in online brand and anti-brand communities. Social identity theory was originally developed in social science to explain people's behavior in the physical environment. This research has also empirically tested the selected multiple concepts in the virtual community to prove their significant impact on online behavior.

Essentially, the selected multiple identities show asymmetrical performance in online brand and anti-brand communities in terms of direct and indirect impacts on CCB. For example, brand identification has been shown to have a positive and significant impact, whilst brand disidentification showed only the impact on the pro-social motive in online brand communities.

Symbolization, the public dimension of moral identification has a direct and positive impact on CCB whilst internalization, the private dimension of moral identification has an impact on only helping, pro-social and emotion venting motives in the anti-brand community.

The discussion of multiple stakeholders (e.g., brand supporter, brand opponents, activists, and brand seekers) from the qualitative study also provides justifications to explain why conflicting roles and opinions (e.g., brand identification and brand disidentification) may co-exist and have an impact on a virtual society.

8.5.5 Extension of Organizational Citizenship Behavior in Online Context

The concept of organization citizenship behavior has been developed in the management field, and is widely used to explain stakeholders' voluntary behavior and contributions in an organization. This concept fits perfectly the setup of online community, to which the users contribute their time and effort voluntarily as a good soldier for its sustainability.

Based on exploratory qualitative research, I extended the management concept of organization citizenship behavior to develop community citizenship behavior with additional online specific behaviour, so as to explain members' voluntary and discretionary contribution in online communities. Community citizenship behavior comprises the quality of recommendation, helping others, feedback and knowledge sharing.

8.5.6 Adoption of Brand Emotion in Online Consumer Behavior Study

Although emotion has been one of the fundamental topics in psychology and positive emotion has firstly been considered in empirical study in marketing to understand the impact of brand emotional attachment on consumer behavior, related research and our knowledge of this concept in the marketing field are still limited.

This research has meaningfully adapted both positive and negative brand emotion measurement scales to understand the behaviour of stakeholders with different brand emotions in an online community (Burke and Edell, 1989, Thomson et al., 2005).

The results of positive and negative brand emotions have revealed the existence of multiple stakeholder emotions in a virtual society. Apparently, positive and negative brand emotions behave differently in online brand and anti-brand community. In an online brand community, both positive brand emotion and negative brand emotion elicit helping, emotion venting and networking motives. In an online anti-brand community, positive brand emotion influences CCB through networking while negative brand emotion triggers the motive of emotion venting. The results may also imply the constructive and destructive tendency of the users with positive or negative emotion towards the brand (Vallaster and von Wallpach, 2013).

8.6 Summary

Chapter 8 has presented a discussion of the research findings. It has provided an explanation of the significant relationships in the resulting models of online brand and online anti-brand participation.

Discussion of the resulting model of online brand community participation and online anti-brand community participation has answered the first half of the research statement regarding the factors and outcome of online brand and anti-brand community participation.

Discussion of the results of significant path difference sheds light on answering the second half of the research statement of the problem regarding differences between consumers' participation in these two types of community. Finally, this chapter concludes with a discussion of theoretical contributions.

Chapter 9: Conclusion

9.1 Introduction

In summary, this research has sought to understand what motivate people to participate in online brand communities and online anti-brand communities, what outcomes the participation brings, and the differences between consumers' participation in these two types of community.

As the first attempt to compare online brand and anti-brand community participation in academia, this study has mainly revisited some existing theories (e.g., model of goal-directed behavior, social identity, brand emotion, organization citizenship behavior, postmodern consumer culture, collective action, brand hegemony) and developed new online behavior concepts (i.e., motives of participation and community citizenship behavior) to explain online brand and anti-brand community participation behavior from a multiple stakeholders perspective.

The exploratory qualitative study and development of two discrete models of online brand and anti-brand community participation from the quantitative research allow us to understand the antecedents and consequences of online brand and online brand participation. The findings have indicated that different dimensions of multiple identifications, brand emotion and motives have demonstrated various impacts on motives and community citizenship behavior in the two communities.

The discussion of the two models and the path differences have also answered the second half of the research statement, namely that there are asymmetric outcomes of the constructs in online brand and anti-brand community participation (Bhattacharya and Elsbach, 2002, Sen et al., 2006, Zagenczyk et al., 2013). The next sections will discuss the managerial implications, the limitations of this study and suggestions for further research.

9.2 Managerial Implications

When conventional marketing practices and strategies are not adequate in the global competitive environment, engaging consumers in online brand communities is considered to be a panacea for businesses to survive. However, the simple development of an online brand community for the consumer will not build up the customer-brand relationship (Turel and Serenko, 2012). A successful online brand community requires continual participation so that voluntary contributions can be provided and it can be engaged (Chan et al., 2014). Here, some guidelines for practitioners on the management of online brand and anti-brand communities are proposed.

9.2.1 Creation of Online Civic Engagement through Social Identity Promotion

Community provides a commonplace for like-minded people to hang out and meet together for social support. As such, online brand and anti-brand community owners should build up a clear community identity to attract like-minded individuals to actively participate, and develop its own culture and bonding (Hackett and Hogg, 2014).

Since identity has a significant and positive influence on community citizenship behavior, the organization and webmaster should also invest more effort into the design of the online brand community (e.g., logo, membership level, services exclusive to members, advertising and promotion), maintain their own motto, rituals, etc. to enhance members' sense of community to the online brand community (Crane, 2012).

The community owners could consider providing different access (e.g., Facebook, Twitter, RSS, YouTube) and infrastructure (e.g., "Like" function in Facebook and voting function) for multiple stakeholders to access information and networks with like-minded people anytime anywhere (Larsson, 2011).

Moral Identification

Given the clear and significant impact of symbolization to people's motives in online community participation and community citizenship behavior, online brand community owners and policy makers should highlight the company's moral value and social responsibility through the content and activities mentioned in the brand community. In doing so, the pro-social, networking and emotion venting motives of the stakeholders in the online brand and anti-brand community would be triggered to motivate the participants to initiate support for the community in many ways.

Usually, a dominant identity will be likely to regulate judgments when it is more important to one's self-concept (Reed II et al., 2007). Therefore it is of paramount importance for the community to cultivate members' self-important identities to trigger the individuals to process information and participate in behavior that is consistent with a particular identity (Forehand et al., 2002). As such, online brand and anti-brand community owners can use a single or multiple identities prime in different contexts (e.g., slogan, jargon) to motivate the communities' target stakeholders to self-identify with actions that portray their identity favouring the communities themselves (i.e., moral and brand identity for brand community, moral and brand disidentity for anti-brand community).

As symbolization plays a significant role in CCB, the community should facilitate the community to uphold the self-presentation of the participant's moral act. For example, self-expressive mechanisms (e.g., the "Like" positive voting feature in the Facebook) provide a means of symbolization to advertise their moral identity, to link up social ties with each other (Kim et al., 2012, Wallace et al., 2012).

Webmasters should also encourage traits of moral identity such as fairness to trigger their moral value and behavior (This could be achieved via the creation of moral community cultures through emphasis on such virtues with moral tone and language in communications. Promotion of online and offline activities (e.g., donation) will allow participants to exercise moral virtues (e.g., volunteerism), moral identity (e.g., being compassionate) and moral personality (e.g., being friendly and hardworking) (Reynolds and Ceranic, 2007).

Brand Identification/Disidentification

For the online brand community, brand identity has been shown to have a positive impact on electronic word-of-mouth in terms of alleviating the influence of negative evaluation by the brand opponents (Chang et al., 2013). Therefore, firms should shape a strong brand identity among the target stakeholders to dilute the anti-brand sentiment in the community.

To build up a high level of brand identification, brand owners should deliver an explicit brand warmth, brand-self similarity, memorable brand experiences, brand distinctiveness and brand social benefits in the online community setting (Stokburger-Sauer et al., 2012). Webmasters should develop a strong brand positioning over time by “setting the stage” and emphasizing its high perceived brand quality and self-brand congruity among the target consumer with various marketing activities such as advertising to increase brand exposure among the target stakeholders (Lam et al., 2013).

The marketer should consider the development of different online community activities and setup to reinforce members’ brand (dis)identity in the online community and understand how it would initiate members’ perception of consciousness of kind, sense of moral responsibility and sharing of rituals and traditions (Felix, 2012, Muniz and O’Guinn, 2001).

Having said this, the research findings did not identify and single out individual stakeholder in the community for analysis. This explanation is mainly taken from the qualitative study.

9.2.2 Brand Emotion in Online (Anti-)Brand Community Participation

The brand owners can make use of different advertising techniques and right choice of words to trigger and reinforce the participants' positive brand emotions (e.g., friendly, loved, peaceful, passionate, delighted, connected, bonded and attached) to enhance their motives for online brand community participation (Ekman, 1999, Park et al., 2007).

The sharing of consumers' consumption experiences with members could help stimulate positive emotions and subsequently reinforce commitment to the community (Wang and Noe, 2010, Zhou et al., 2012). When a group of like-minded people join together in the same system or discussion, even out of curiosity, they feel that they are in vogue. Instant messengers or instant features (e.g., messenger and "Like" voting button) allow individuals to improve interaction and discussion among each other, which creates positive feeling and enjoyment of use. A positive emotion to the brand could also result in a more forgiving attitude to an organization for wrongdoings through communication with multiple stakeholders (Joireman et al., 2013).

In terms of emotional experience, the organization needs to take care of the communications of different stakeholders, especially when there are conflict of interest and arguments among the stakeholders. As such, moderators and clear regulations are essential and beneficial to ensure everyone respects each other and feels comfortable in expressing their voice through rules and moderation.

9.2.3 Motives of Online (Anti-)Brand Community Participation

Webmasters should pay attention to the design of online communities to trigger the helping, pro-social, emotion venting and networking motives to enhance their community consumer behaviour. Activities such as forum, newsletter, Facebook posting, members' help and advice corner by topic, advice to webmaster/organization, making new friends by interest/topic and etc. could be organized in the community to allow the members to get their thoughts and opinions across with like-minded people and other stakeholders. The webmasters could also come up with a schedule to grant incentive or award to participants with significant and active contribution such as empowering different management or symbolic roles in the communities.

As Brickson et al. (2013) suggest, people would compare their expected identity with the organization's identity to assess the organization's ability to meet their different motives of participation. Therefore, community owners should also create a consistent identity of the brand and the community with respect to their attitude to helping, pro-social and networking activities.

9.2.4 Community Citizenship Behavior

Online community citizenship behavior consists of helping others, recommendation, feedback and knowledge sharing. High quality of feedback and information is an important factor in terms of sustainability for online community (Adjei et al., 2012). Marketers should keep monitoring the output of such behavior to help organizations to serve the key stakeholders better in terms of brand community setup, product and service delivery. Apart from creating a user-friendly platform for the participants to share and provide feedback, webmasters are also advised to achieve the participants' discussions and content (e.g., photos, videos) uploaded to serve as a vast database about diverse stakeholder experiences (Garrett, 2010).

Community owners have to mobilize group leaders and elders in the community for active contribution of their knowledge and positive feedback from the key stakeholders (Bishop, 2009, Brodie et al., 2013). Moreover, in view of increasing cyber crime and stalking activities, it is important that they also appoint moderators to maintain the law-and-order of the community and also foster a positive environment for shaping moral citizenship behavior (Young et al., 2013).

9.2.5 Online Anti-brand Community as Image Barometer, Source of Product and Service Improvement and Innovation

Firms should not consider all anti-branding activities as negative. Indeed, people in general are more open to share than in real-world circumstances due to the anonymous nature in the cyberspace (O'Reilly and Marx, 2011). Online anti-communities provide a common platform for brand owners and multiple stakeholders to meet and listen to the voices, and discuss and come up with solutions for improvement in a pro-active manner (Kucuk, 2008b, Kucuk, 2010).

To take the anti-brand community Jeff Jarvis' Dell Hell as an example, to respond to the customers' dissatisfaction and complaints in online anti-brand communities, Dell has launched 'Idea Storm' to collect such ideas on Dell products, services, operation and technology. Although Dell has to invest extra effort in managing over 12,000 ideas from 'Idea Storm', they have managed to use some of the thoughts to meet the customers' needs beyond expectation. Two months after Idea Storm was rolled out, Jeff Jarvis wrote: "It is clear that at least at some levels, Dell has changed its culture and certainly its attitude toward bloggers. They now see value in reaching out" (Cova and White, 2010).

Companies should also consider hiring moderators or engaging public relation agencies to monitor the content of the relevant anti-brand communities to find out the stakeholders' complaints, so that they can respond accordingly before they give up on the brand or even spread negative word-of-mouth further online and offline.

Most importantly of all, brands should make use of the input from anti-brand communities to improve their product and service quality. The unmet needs, ideas, suggestions and wishes of the participants in the anti-brand community could be powerful source for new product development and innovation in the company.

9.3 Limitations and Directions for Future Research

This exploratory research, like any other research project, has limitations. Firstly, the sample size of 260 for online brand community and 200 for anti-brand community was deemed just adequate although a larger sample may have been better. To receive a more meaningful and in-depth insight into the finding, if time and effort allows, it is suggested that a bigger sample size be collected from a certain selected brands and anti-brand for multi-level SEM analysis by brand and industry to find out the similarities and differences in brand level and industry (Homburg et al., 2009).

The main survey is self-reported via an online questionnaire. There is no way to verify their actual identity and doing more than one questionnaire for the prize draw, although the researcher has checked the timing and domain site of the respondents to avoid repeat entries. Due to the self-reported nature of the survey, it is feasible that the findings were affected by self-selection bias. The participants participating in the survey might be more engaged in community activities than those who did not join.

Previous research has indicated demographic factors, namely that gender, age and education could affect the relation between the antecedents and online community participation (Parks and Floyd, 1996, Herring, 2000, Wang and Fesenmaier, 2004). To produce more generalizable findings, one can also consider a comparison of other demographic, psychographic, and behavioral factors such as community size, user segmentation, roles in community (i.e., lurker, novice, regular, leader and elder)(Bishop, 2009, Habibi et al., 2014). Community setup such as, 1) consumer-to-consumer (C2C) interaction, business-to-business (B2B) and consumer-to-business (C2B) interaction, 2) organization-operated and consumer-initiated community are also recommended to identify the similarities and differences (Brodie et al., 2013).

In online brand communities, participants use pseudonyms whereas people provide their real identities in social media, which would bring about a change in “the pattern of personality of community and social media users” (Correa et al., 2010, Habibi et al., 2014). It is worth investigating people’s participation behavior in social media based online brand communities to identify their differences from the independent online brand and anti-brand community sites.

This cross-sectional study has portrayed an integrated view of the overall relationship among the chosen factors. The understanding of dynamics of multiple stakeholders in online community is rather vague at the moment. The finding means that it may not be easy to interpret how the participants initiate the motives in the community and form long-term community citizenship behavior over time.

Further longitudinal and qualitative research (e.g., netnography) is suggested to document the dynamic evolution of various online behavior and single out their unique attitudes, emotions, motives and behavior in terms of stakeholder type, tenure in the community and level of engagement for theory building of online community (Hickman and Ward, 2013, Mathwick et al., 2008).

Originally, Willingness to Moderate was proposed as a dimension of community citizenship behavior. However, the model fit result from confirmatory factor analysis has suggested the removal of this dimension. In view of the important role of the moderator in online community indicated from the qualitative research and latest literature, it is suggested that academicians could revisit this concept based on the model of goal-directed behavior to test its impact, for example, as a social intention, to fill further research gaps (Cheung et al., 2014, Turcotte et al., 2015, Velasquez and LaRose, 2014).

Further research could be conducted to find out such a phenomenon from the psychological and behavioral perspectives to understand the subsequent impact of their participation in terms of their change in attitude (e.g., constructive vs. destructive punitive actions) towards the brand and their interaction with participants of negative brand emotion and brand dis-identification (Romani et al., 2013).

The majority of research in online community is from the western world. In view of the fact that the emerging market is having higher importance in the world economy, apart from testing existing applicability of offline theories in the online platform, the researchers could also conduct cross-cultural research to understand the impact of national culture in their online behavior (e.g., collectivistic versus individualistic orientations) (Tsai and Bagozzi, 2014, Lam et al., 2012). However, they have to face the challenge that most users in some countries may use their native language for online community site development and communication.

Finally, from the practitioners' point of view, what interests them the most is not simply consumers' online behavior, but the impacts on online and offline consumer behavior and benefits to the business in terms of sales, profitability and long-term sustainability. This is echoed by the proliferation of research to understand how online brand related behavior would affect and reinforce consumers' offline behavior and vice versa (Goodrich and de Mooij, 2014, Gyrd-Jones and Kornum, 2013, Kacen et al., 2013, O'Guinn, 2015).

Academicians may extend this research to understand how multiple identities, brand emotions, motives and community citizenship could influence and reinforce consumers online and offline buying behavior and other factors such as brand engagement, brand loyalty and word-of-mouth (Dessart et al., 2015).

9.4 Summary

This research has a proposed and empirically tested an integrated model of antecedents and consequences of online brand and anti-brand community participation. This chapter concludes with the key findings of the research, followed by an introduction to the managerial implications. This is concluded by a discussion of the limitations and directions for further research.

Appendix 1: Online Research Recruitment Registration Form

Personal Particulars

First name:

Surname:

Age:

E-mail:

Nationality:

Gender: male / female

How fluent would you say you are in English Excellent/Good/Satisfactory/Poor/Bad

What is your native language

Profession ----

Student: Main field of

Phone number

Online Community Usage Behavior

In order to better match your background with our research please answer the following questions.

Online communities here refer to:

- a) standalone community websites for individual issue, organization (e.g. Greenpeace),
- b) Groups created in online social networking site (e.g. The University of Warwick, Coca-Cola groups in Facebook).

Are you a member of any online communities* Yes / No

If Yes - please list the name(s) or website link(s) of the mostly visited (max 3)

(1)

(2)

(3)

How often do you visit online communities

---- More than once a week/Once a week/Once a month/Less than once a month

Have you ever joined any anti- (e.g. anti-racism) or complaint groups (e.g. www.complaints.com)*

Yes

No

If Yes, what are they?

Number of years of online social networking (e.g. Facebook) experience

Appendix 2: List of Consolidated Global Brands

Accenture	Adidas	Adobe	Aldi
Allianz	Amazon	American Express	Apple
Armani	AT&T	Auchan	Audi
Avon	AXA	Baidu	Bank of America
Bank of China	Barclays	BBVA	Beeline
BlackBerry	BMW	BP	Bradesco
Budwiser	Burberry	Burger King	Campbell's
Canon	Carrefour	Cartier	Caterpillar
Chanel	Chase	China Construction Bank	
China Merchants Bank		China Mobile	
Cisco	CitiGroup	Coca-cola	Colgate
Danone	Dell	Disney	Duracell
eBay	ExxonMobil	FedEx	Ferrari
Ford	Gap	GE	Gillette
Goldman Sachs	Google	Gucci	H&M
Harley Davidson	Heinz	Hermes	Home Depot
Honda	HP	HSBC	Hyundai
IBM	ICBC	ICICI	IKEA
Intel	Johnson & Johnson	JP Morgan	Kellogg's
KFC	Kleenex	Lancome	Lexus
L'Oreal	Louis Vitton	MacDonalds	Marlboro
MasterCard	Mercedes	Mircosoft	Moet & Chandon
Morgan Stanley	Movistar	MTS	MTV
Nescafe	Nestle	Nike	Nintendo
Nissan	Nivea	Nokia	NTT DoCoMo
O2	Oracle	Orange	Pampers
Panasonic	Pepsi	Petrobras	PetroChina
Philips	Pizza Hut	Polo Ralph Lauren	
Porsche	Prada	Puma	RBC
Red Bull	Rolex	Samsung	Santander
SAP	Shell	Siemens	Smirnoff
Sony	Standardchartered	Starbucks	State Farm
Subway	Target	TD	Telcel
Tesco	Thomson Reuters	Tiffany & Co.	T-Mobile
Toyota	UBS	UPS	US Bank
Verizon Wireless	Visa	Vodafone	Volkswagen
Walmart			

Appendix 3: Interview Protocol Form

Interviewee (Title and Name): _____

Contact

Phone: _____

Email: _____

Interviewer: _____

Survey Section Used

____ A: Ice-breaking questions/Participation Background

____ B: Participation Experience and Behavior

____ C: Unique Experience

____ D: Opinion to Online Brand and Anti-brand Community Development

____ E: Demographics (Note: to be filled out before focus group discussion)

Introductory Protocol

Good morning/afternoon/evening,

Thank you for your participation to this research, which is part of the requirement for my PhD study. Please be assured that the data collected will be used for my research. All information will be kept confidential. Your participation is voluntary. Therefore, you may stop anytime if you want to.

Identity of individual participant will not be revealed to anyone, nor identified from the finding of the study.

To facilitate my note taking, I would like to ask for your permission for recording or our conversations. Recording will be destroyed after transcription.

You have been selected for this study because you have been identified as someone who has experience of online brand and/or anti-brand community participation. My research focuses on people's participation behavior in online brand and anti-brand community, in particular what motivate them to participation and what consequences it will make.

Please be reminded that I would like to have your spontaneous response and feeling about the topics we discuss. There is not right or wrong answer. Please feel free to tell me your actual feelings and opinions.

A: Ice-breaking questions/Participation Background

Online Community Experience

- Experience of online brand community (prompt: how & how long)
- Experience of online anti-brand community (prompt: how & how long)

B: Participation Experience and Behavior

Reason to join online communities

- Why do you join online communities
- Why do you join online brand communities
- When do you join? (prompt: bored/frustrated)
- Where do you join? (prompt: home/work)

Feeling and benefits sought from online brand/anti-brand communities

- What do you enjoy the most from online brand communities? Why? What else?
- What do you enjoy the least from online anti-brand communities? Why? What else?
- What do you enjoy the least from online brand communities? Why? What else?
- What do you enjoy the least from online anti-brand communities? Why? What else?
- What do you normally do in those communities?
- How much do you contribute?
- How do you normally contribute?
- Do you contribute differently to different communities, and why?

C. Unique Experience

Do you have any unique or interesting story of your own or friend's online community experience to share?

Why do you think it is interesting or unique?

D: Opinion to Online Brand and Anti-brand Community Development (30 min)

Have you heard about hate site or anti-brand communities?

(show visuals of hate site and anti-brand communities)

What are they?

Who do you think will join?

What are the purposes of joining? How are they different from normal online communities?

How would you define online anti-brand communities? Can you give example of such communities?

E. Demographics

- Name: Gender: Age:
- Major: Year of study:
- Country born:
- No. of year in England:
- Hobbies:
- When do you first joining online brand community (e.g. MacDonalds Group)?
- Which online community do you mostly visit?
- Which online brand community do you mostly visit?
- Have you heard about online anti-brand community or hate site? If yes, which one?

Appendix 4: Questionnaire

This survey is part of my PhD research at the University of Warwick. It is about people's involvement with the online brand communities (e.g., Facebook groups / forums for specific brand). The questionnaire for this survey consists of 4 pages and will take about 10 minutes to complete. Please answer as openly and honestly as possible. Your response will remain anonymous.

Q1. On average, how many **time(s) per month** do you visit this online community?

Q2. On average, how much time (**minutes**) do you spend on **each visit** to this online community?

The following questions are about your participation in the online brand community chosen at the beginning of this survey

Q3. Compared to the other members, **how active** are you in this online brand community?

I am Extremely inactive 1 2 3 Moderate 4 5 6 Extremely active 7

Q4. To what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following:

I participate in this particular online brand community because I want to....

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 Neutral 4 5 6 Strongly agree 7

- I want to form alliance with other members to support the well-being of the society
- I am interested in keeping up with the development of key concerns of the community
- I care about the key concerns of the community
- Help those in need
- Help its members in any way I can
- Be helpful
- Project a good social image
- Make good use of my time
- Set a good example
- Make new friends
- Come into contact with different people at all times
- Feel connected to people from all over the world

- Seek emotional support from others (e.g., handling unemployment)
- Seek functional support (e.g., using software)
- Release my emotions
- Express my irritations with society
- Express my feelings and frustrations

Q5. What is the setup of this online community?

- Company or organization initiated online community
- Online community initiated and maintained by volunteer

Q6. What is the size of this online community?

- 100 members or less
- 101-500 members
- 501-1000 members
- More than 1,000 members
- Not sure

Q7. To what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements regarding this online brand community:

Q8. To what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements on your attitude towards the brand?

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 Neutral 4 5 6 Strongly agree 7

- This brand's successes are my successes.
- If someone praises this brand, it feels like a personal compliment.
- If someone criticizes this brand, it feels like a personal insult.
- The brand's failures are my successes.
- When someone praises this brand, it feels like a personal insult.
- When someone criticizes this brand, it feels like a personal compliment.

Q9. To what extent does each of the following words describe your typical feelings towards the brand?

Strongly disagree	1	2	3	Neutral	4	5	6	Strongly agree	7
Affectionate			Friendly			Loved			Peaceful
Passionate			Delighted			Captivated			Connected
Bonded			Attached			Sad			Sorrowful
Distressed			Irritated			Angry			Annoyed
Offended			Depressed						

Q 10. To what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements regarding your future involvement with this online brand community:

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 Neutral 4 5 6 Strongly agree 7

- I intend to post information in this online community regularly in the future.
- I will try to share my comments with members of this online community in the future.
- I will always make an effort to provide feedback to members of this online community.
- Recommend this online community to my family.
- Recommend this online community to my peers.
- Recommend this community to people interested in the community/brand content.
- Assist other members in finding information.
- Help others with their information research.
- Teach someone how to use the online community correctly.
- Explain to other members how to use the online community correctly.
- Report to the owner/webmaster misuse/abuse in the community.
- Draw participants to good quality interaction (e.g., discussion)
- Provide helpful feedback to the host.
- Provide information when surveyed by the online community.
- Inform the host about the great information or support received by an individual member.

Q11. Listed below are some characteristics that might describe a person:

***Caring, Compassionate, Fair, Friendly, Generous,
Helpful, Hardworking, Honest, Kind***

The person with these characteristics could be you or it could be someone else. For a moment, visualize in your mind the kind of person who has these characteristics. Imagine how that person would think, feel, and act. When you have a clear image of what this person would be like, answer the following questions.

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 Neutral 4 5 6 Strongly agree 7

- It would make me feel good to be a person who has these characteristics.
- Being someone who has these characteristics is an important part of who I am.
- I often wear clothes that identify me as having these characteristics.
- I would be ashamed to be a person who had these characteristics.
- The types of things I do in my spare time (e.g., hobbies) clearly identify me as having these characteristics.
- The kinds of books and magazines that I read identify me as having these characteristics.
- Having these characteristics is NOT really important to me.
- The fact that I have these characteristics is communicated to others by my membership in certain organizations.
- I am actively involved in activities that communicate to others that I have these characteristics.
- I strongly desire to have these characteristics.

Personal Background

Gender

- Male - Female

Age

What is your highest qualification so far?

- Below bachelor degree - Bachelor first degree
- Master degree - Doctorate degree

Online Community Member Role

Which one of the following describe yourself the best in this online brand community?

- Lurker - Novice - Regular - Leader - Elder

What country are you in right now?

If you would like to enter into the prize draw, please write your email address.

Appendix 5: Demographics Characteristics of Test Sample

	Brand Community	Anti-brand Community	Total
Gender			
Male	111 (43%)	97 (49%)	208 (45%)
Female	131 (50%)	86 (43%)	217 (47%)
Not specified	18 (7%)	17 (9%)	35 (8%)
Total	260	200	460
Age			
Below 20	16 (6%)	21 (11%)	37 (8%)
21-30	88 (34%)	69 (35%)	157 (34%)
31-40	99 (38%)	59 (30%)	158 (34%)
Above 40	44 (17%)	21 (11%)	65 (14%)
Not specified	13 (5%)	30 (15%)	43 (9%)
Total	260	200	460
Average	33	31	32
Education			
Below Bachelor	42 (16%)	42 (21%)	89 (18%)
Bachelor	116 (45%)	78 (39%)	194 (42%)
Master	69 (27%)	39 (20%)	108 (23%)
Doctorate	8 (3%)	5 (3%)	13 (3%)
Not specified	25 (10%)	31 (16%)	56 (12%)
Total	260	200	460
Visit Duration (min)			
0-5	73 (28%)	82 (41%)	155 (34%)
6-10	50 (19%)	54 (27%)	104 (23%)
11-20	69 (27%)	35 (18%)	104 (23%)
21-30	59 (23%)	22 (11%)	81 (18%)
Above 30	28 (11%)	7 (4%)	35 (8%)
Total	260	200	460
Average (number of min?)	20	12	17
Visit Frequency (per year)			
0-5	180 (69%)	153 (77%)	333 (72%)
6-10	30 (12%)	14 (7%)	44 (10%)
11-20	22 (8%)	15 (8%)	37 (8%)
>20	28 (11%)	18 (9%)	46 (10%)
Total	260	200	460
Average	7.7	6.0	7.2

	Brand Community	Anti-brand Community
Level of Participation		
Low (1-3)	148 (%)	97 (%)
Medium (4)	64 (%)	86 (%)
High (5-7)	48	17
Total	260	200
Community Role		
Lurker	45 (19%)	46 (27%)
Novice	71 (30%)	66 (39%)
Regular	97 (41%)	44 (26%)
Leader	17(7%)	10 (6%)
Total	239 (100%)	168 (100%)
not specified	21	32
Total	260	200

	Brand Community	Anti-brand Community	Total
IT& Telecom Product			
Apple	47	24	71
BlackBerry	1	0	1
Dell	0	5	5
HP	1	1	2
IBM	3	5	8
Microsoft	6	15	21
Nokia	5	3	8
Samsung	11	8	19
Subtotal	74	61	135
IT & Telecom Service			
Accenture	0	1	1
AT&T	0	2	2
China Mobile	9	4	13
Google	34	13	47
O2	0	1	1
Orange	2	3	5
T-Mobile	0	1	1
Vodafone	1	1	2
Subtotal	46	26	72
Retailing			
Amazon	20	4	24
eBay	8	14	22
IKEA	17	4	21
Subtotal	45	22	67

Fast Food			
Burger King	1	2	3
KFC	1	2	3
MacDonald's	3	12	15
Pizza Hut	6	5	11
Starbucks	6	10	16
Subtotal	17	31	48
Fast Moving Consumer Goods			
Coca-Cola	7	6	13
Colgate	1	0	1
Johnson & Johnson	1	2	3
Kellogg's	1	0	1
L'Oreal	1	2	3
Nestle	1	1	2
Nivea	0	1	1
P&G	4	1	5
Pepsi	0	4	4
Subtotal	16	17	33
Apparel			
Adidas	8	8	16
Gap	3	0	3
H&M	7	1	8
Nike	3	1	4
Puma	0	1	1
Subtotal	21	11	32
Automotive			
Audi	1	1	2
BMW	3	7	10
Ferrari	1	0	1
Ford	1	0	1
Honda	1	0	1
Hyundai	1	1	2
Lexus	1	1	2
Mercedes	2	0	2
Nissan	1	0	1
Toyota	2	0	2
Volkswagen	1	1	2
Subtotal	15	11	26
Supermarket			
Aldi	1	0	1
Auchan	3	1	4
Carrefour	2	3	5
Tesco	4	0	4
Walmart	3	1	4
Subtotal	13	5	18

Electronics			
Canon	4	2	6
Nintendo	0	2	2
Panasonic	1	0	1
Philips	0	1	1
Siemens	0	2	2
Sony	3	1	4
Subtotal	8	8	16
Banking			
American Express	3	0	3
Bank of America	0	1	1
Barclays	0	3	3
MasterCard	0	3	3
Visa	2	1	3
Subtotal	5	8	13
Total	260 (100%)	200 (100%)	460 (100%)

Appendix 6: Results of Common Method Bias Test

			Without CF	With CF	Difference
Internalization1	<---	Internalization	0.906	0.796	0.11
Internalization2	<---	Internalization	0.952	0.819	0.13
Symbolization1	<---	Symbolization	0.79	0.622	0.17
Symbolization2	<---	Symbolization	0.85	0.694	0.16
Symbolization3	<---	Symbolization	0.82	0.669	0.15
BrandDisID1	<---	BrandDisID	0.929	0.925	0.00
BrandDisID2	<---	BrandDisID	0.973	0.97	0.00
BrandDisID3	<---	BrandDisID	0.951	0.946	0.01
BrandID1	<---	BrandID	0.911	0.82	0.09
BrandID2	<---	BrandID	0.954	0.883	0.07
BrandID3	<---	BrandID	0.906	0.813	0.09
BrandEA8	<---	Connection	0.856	0.735	0.12
BrandEA9	<---	Connection	0.94	0.855	0.09
BrandEA10	<---	Connection	0.812	0.712	0.10
BrandEA5	<---	Passion	0.893	0.774	0.12
BrandEA6	<---	Passion	0.928	0.85	0.08
BrandEA2	<---	Affection	0.857	0.786	0.07
BrandEA3	<---	Affection	0.905	0.815	0.09
BrandEA4	<---	Affection	0.888	0.776	0.11
BrandEA11	<---	Depression	0.893	0.874	0.02
BrandEA18	<---	Depression	0.945	0.927	0.02
BrandEA14	<---	Irritation	0.961	0.946	0.02
BrandEA15	<---	Irritation	0.957	0.944	0.01
BrandEA16	<---	Irritation	0.969	0.957	0.01
Helping1	<---	Helping	0.889	0.701	0.19
Helping2	<---	Helping	0.931	0.731	0.20
Helping3	<---	Helping	0.903	0.72	0.18
ProSocial1	<---	ProSocial	0.79	0.595	0.20
ProSocial2	<---	ProSocial	0.86	0.547	0.31
Prosocial3	<---	ProSocial	0.89	0.565	0.33
EmoVent1	<---	EmoVent	0.851	0.748	0.10
EmoVent2	<---	EmoVent	0.914	0.821	0.09
EmoVent3	<---	EmoVent	0.94	0.852	0.09
Networking1	<---	Networking	0.899	0.724	0.18
Networking2	<---	Networking	0.892	0.727	0.17
HelpOther1	<---	HelpOther	0.957	0.542	0.42
HelpOther2	<---	HelpOther	0.963	0.506	0.46
Recommend1	<---	Recommend	0.929	0.656	0.27
Recommend2	<---	Recommend	0.954	0.702	0.25
Moderator2	<---	Feedback	0.878	0.483	0.40
Moderator3	<---	Feedback	0.911	0.489	0.42

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